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ABSTRACT

Nine papers aim to help staff members in England's colleges of further (or adult) education to improve their interpersonal skills. The first paper outlines basic social interaction skills. The second paper covers current methods of analyzing group interaction, including observation of role behavior and of interaction flow and frequency. The third paper lists group functions within organizations, such as maintenance of membership, decision-making, and task performance. Methods and objectives of team building are examined in the fourth paper. The fifth paper recommends transactional analysis (TA) as the best way to understand social and personal interaction and discusses TA's basic concepts, including ego states, interpersonal transactions, scripts, and games. Nonverbal communication is the subject of the sixth paper while the seventh looks at various types of counseling interviews. The eighth paper summarizes other approaches to interpersonal skill development, such as management training and sensitivity training. The concluding paper suggests ways to continue learning interpersonal skills. Lists of organizations' addresses and of books for further reading are attached. (Author/RW)

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INTER–PERSONAL SKILLS IN FURTHER EDUCATION

A Collection of Papers for In Service Development

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Colin M Turner
Staff Tutor
April 1978

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PREFACE

These papers have been written primarily for the staff in Further Education Colleges, though they should be of relevance to anyone concerned with the improvement of interpersonal skills. They are not written for those who already have some training and experience in the skills associated with social behaviour, or who are professionally employed as counsellors, group trainers or the like.

This should be seen as an introductory volume for those who wish to begin to explore the subject of interpersonal skills.

The plan of the volume is as follows:

Paper No.1 is an introduction to the series and outlines the basic skills of social interaction.

Paper Nos. 2-4 are all concerned with aspects of group behaviour. Paper No.2 covers some of the current methods of group interaction analysis. Paper No.3, written by Russ Russell, examines the various different functions of groups within organisations. Paper No.4 describes the process of Team Building or Team Development, with reference to its application in a College of Further Education.

Paper No.5, with its supplement, is the key theoretical paper. It is an exposition of the technique of Transactional Analysis which we are putting forward as the most effective way of understanding social interaction and personal relationships, whether in personal, social or work situations. Transactional Analysis underwrites all the other papers in this volume.

Paper Nos. 6-8, the focus is on various aspects of individual behaviour. Paper No.6 is concerned with non-verbal communication. Paper No.7 looks at the Counselling Interview, which covers Appraisal, Disciplinary and Pastoral Interviewing. Paper No.8 covers a number of approaches to interpersonal skills training not mentioned elsewhere in the volume.

The paper concludes with a paper suggesting further staff development activity, and composite list of books and addresses mentioned in the text.

AUTHOR'S NOTE

These papers were written with the help and critical advice of Russ Russell and Philippa Andrews of the Further Education Staff College. Russ Russell also contributed Paper 3. I was given considerable help on Paper 4 by Norman Clegg, Principal of North Nottinghamshire College of Further Education, and on Paper 7 by Penny Chadwick, from the College for the Distributive Trades, Leicester Square. Drafts and typescripts were prepared by Sally Lyons and Gillian Griffin. I acknowledge this help with thanks. Material on pages 47-52 is used by permission of McGraw Hill Book Company and is taken from "New Patterns of Management" by R. Likert. Copyright. 1961.

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PAPER 1

AN INTRODUCTION TO INTER-PERSONAL SKILLS

PAPER No.1

THE BASIC SKILLS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

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THE BASIC SKILLS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

1. Introduction

1.1 We all have to exercise skill in relating to other people. None of us are hermits. We earn our living working with other people for other people, and for those in the business of teaching, there is a particularly heavy commitment to skill in changing people.

1.2 Very few people are likely to admit that they are bad at interpersonal skills any more than that they are bad at making love or driving a car. Yet we can all identify many around us who are clearly very bad at dealing with people, and another large group of our acquaintances, perhaps the majority, who are barely passable. Perhaps self-honesty and realisation of one's own lack of skill is a prior state of an investigation into the area of interpersonal skills.

1.3 In the following sections, we will suggest the purposes to which such skills are commonly put, and then look at the elements which seem to form the skill of relating to people.

2. The Purposes of Interpersonal Skill Activity

2.1 We can divide consideration of this into two areas - professional or work activity and social non-work activity. In professional situations, Argyle has suggested the following purposes to which skills are put.

	Purpose	Examples of Allied Work Area
1.	Conveying knowledge, information or understanding	Most obviously done in teaching and instructing
2.	Obtaining information	For example in interviewing candidates for a job
3.	Changing attitudes, behaviour or beliefs	Persuading people to change consumption habits by effective salesmanship, or door-to-door political canvassing
4.	Changing another's personality	Clearly the job of psycho-therapy, but equally so of child-rearing
5.	Changing the emotional state of another	Reducing hostility in a person by joke-telling
6.	Working at a co-operative task	Common in all sorts of tasks at work
7.	Supervising the activities of another	Strongly seen in a nurse with a patient, or a teacher with a child
8.	Supervision and co-ordination of a group	For example, taking the chair at a meeting or arbitrating in a dispute

2.2 In non-professional or non-work situations, people are motivated by the wish to get other people to respond to them in an affiliative or friendly, dependent or submissive, or dominant way. These various goals are obtained partially, completely or not at all, easily or with difficulty, with or without cost, depending upon how we use our skills. Some skills may be very specific to particular areas, (for example, the skills of the teacher or the psychotherapist), but we would argue that there are other first-order skills which are basic to all interactions.

3. Basic Social Skills

3.1 Perceptual Sensitivity

This is the ability to perceive more in other people's behaviour than is commonly the case. It requires firstly a high concentration on recording what is there - by listening much more carefully, observing much more thoroughly, and if it is relevant touching and smelling more fully. Most of us cannot listen to other people talking for very long without our minds wandering off. Likewise we seldom look carefully at a person for very long to note what expression they have, how they are sitting, what body movements they are exhibiting. The habit of carefully recording what is going on, so that we actually have a lot more information is something in which we can train ourselves.

The second stage is the developing of fine discrimination between the bits of information we get so that we can give them various meanings. This process of analysis of data involves the ability to interpret what different cues mean. In particular we learn what is implied by changes in facial expression, tone of voice, involuntary movements of feet and hands, posture and vocabulary. This also is something in which people can be trained.

3.2 Knowledge of Self as Seen by Others

Most of us have very inaccurate images of how we are seen by others. We have some kind of self-image of what kind of person we think we are, and our assumption is that this is roughly how other people think of us. One of the more difficult skills is breaking through this type of thinking to the realisation that people have images and impressions of us of which we are unaware. Once we accept this, then we can begin to explore ways of discovering how we are typically seen by others. Note that this does not mean that we accept that other people are right or justified in the views they hold of us. The important thing is that if we are working with other people we are aware of the perceptions they have of us and can then work within this knowledge. Without it, our interactions with other people will be based on incomprehension. A part of the aim of most group training schemes is to confront a person with how he or she appears to other people in the group. Though this might be traumatic at first, it is an essential prelude to effective skill in interaction.

3.3 Taking the Part of Others

One of the abilities we have as human beings is the power to think ourselves into someone else's position and see life through their eyes. Clearly this is a useful social skill, and is more highly-developed in some than others.

3.4 Giving Recognition or Strokes

People respond to compliments, rewards, recognition, praise, thanks, or, to use the generic term, strokes, and will modify their behaviour on the basis of the strokes they receive. Some people are very bad at giving strokes and this tends to make them disliked or distrusted. On the whole people who are popular and well liked give a lot of strokes to other people, and do it sensitively and creatively. Clearly if recognition reinforces behaviour, there is little joy to be had in reinforcing destructive or negative behaviour. On the other hand, only to give strokes for achieving well makes the process very conditional on performance. The skillful stroke-giver steers between these two extremes.

3.5 Feedback

Apart from learning how other people see us, and developing sensitivity in interpreting the cues other people give us about our performance, we need to go further and modify our behaviour on the basis of this feedback. It is not enough simply to know: we also need to make use of the knowledge to improve our performance.

3.6 The Independent Performance of Others

We have to work on the basis that our own behaviour has to fit in with that of other people. In social situations my capacity to influence someone else is not a one-way affair, but is reactive and interactive, but each of us modify our performance in the light of the other's performance. At a mechanical level, for example, we need to get a smooth synchronised sequence of speech, and to do that each of us needs to adjust our pace and length of contribution to fit with the other. So there is a definable skill of synchronisation based on recognition of the independent activity of other people.

3.7 The Presentation of Self

We all present ourselves, in terms of our clothes, manner, conversation, etc., in accordance with the particular image of ourselves we want to display to others. This is sometimes called impression management, and it can be done with adroitness and skill or with ineptness. We do not expect the uncertaker to be telling jokes at the funeral, or the bank manager to be playing poker with his chief cashier when we go into his office. If we present the wrong or inappropriate image we are likely to cause embarrassment and a breakdown in interaction.

3.8 Recognising Oneself

Finally, there is a most difficult skill in learning about ourselves and coming to terms with our own prejudices, fears, feelings, personality characteristics. When we feel good about ourselves on the basis of this kind of understanding, it enables us to feel not only confident in our own behaviour but to feel trust for other people and a respect for their own individual position. This is a hard position to maintain all the time, but it is the basis of effective interaction with other people.

Further Reading

As an introduction to basic social skills the work of Argyle is probably the most useful. The most concise version is in:

Argyle, M. The Psychology of Interpersonal Behaviour, Penguin 1967.

His ideas are developed at greater length in:

Argyle, M. Social Interaction, Tavistock 1969.

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PAPER 2

GROUP PROCESSES AND INTERACTION ANALYSIS

PAPER No. 2

GROUP INTERACTION ANALYSIS

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GROUP INTERACTION ANALYSIS

1. Introduction

1.1 Interaction is the basis of all group activity. Whenever people meet together in formal or informal groups, they communicate with each other, and it is this pattern of communicating behaviour that is the subject matter of Interaction Analysis.

As students of interaction, we will want to know:-

What is said
How it is said
Who said it to whom
When it was said
Where it occurred

It is not possible to obtain a fine reading of the behaviour in a group on all these areas, but there are methods at least for partially illuminating and analysing interactive behaviour, which we will describe.

Is this merely an exercise to satisfy our academic curiosity or is Interaction Analysis useful in a practical way?

It is our belief that people can improve their own skill in interactive behaviour. This increase in skill is helped by training in Interaction Analysis, because this gives them:

a. Knowledge about their own social behaviour, through systematic observation and feedback;

b. Information and concepts which enable them to improve their social performance;

c. An increased ability to analyse, understand and respond to the behaviour of others.

We should emphasise, however, it is only one of a number of methods of improving an individual's skill in social behaviour, and should in any training programme be part of a wider repertoire of techniques.

There are a number of types of information we can observe in groups. In this paper we will consider:

Frequency
Interaction Flow
Role Behaviour
Content Analysis

2. Frequency

2.1 We can record the total number of contributions made over a period of time by each individual. Clearly it is useful to know that one member, for example, has made more than a third of the contributions and that two others have said nothing at all. The group itself will have to decide whether this is a state of affairs that is desirable, but if some members make few, if any contributions, then their potential is not being fully exploited, and if one member is making a disproportionately high number, then he is likely to be dominating the proceedings. Generally speaking, the more a member talks, the more the rest of the group responds to what he has said.

2.2 The number of contributions made does not tell how long a member has been speaking as his contributions can vary from a second to several minutes. Therefore, one can record who it is that is speaking at intervals of five seconds over a period of time. This will distinguish those who speak at length but not very often from those who make short but frequent interventions.

3. Interaction Flow

3.1 We are here concerned with who speaks to whom? It is not very difficult to record, but we have to make the decision as to whether we are using as our measure:

a. The discrete contributions made by each member,

b. The time spent in talking by each member.

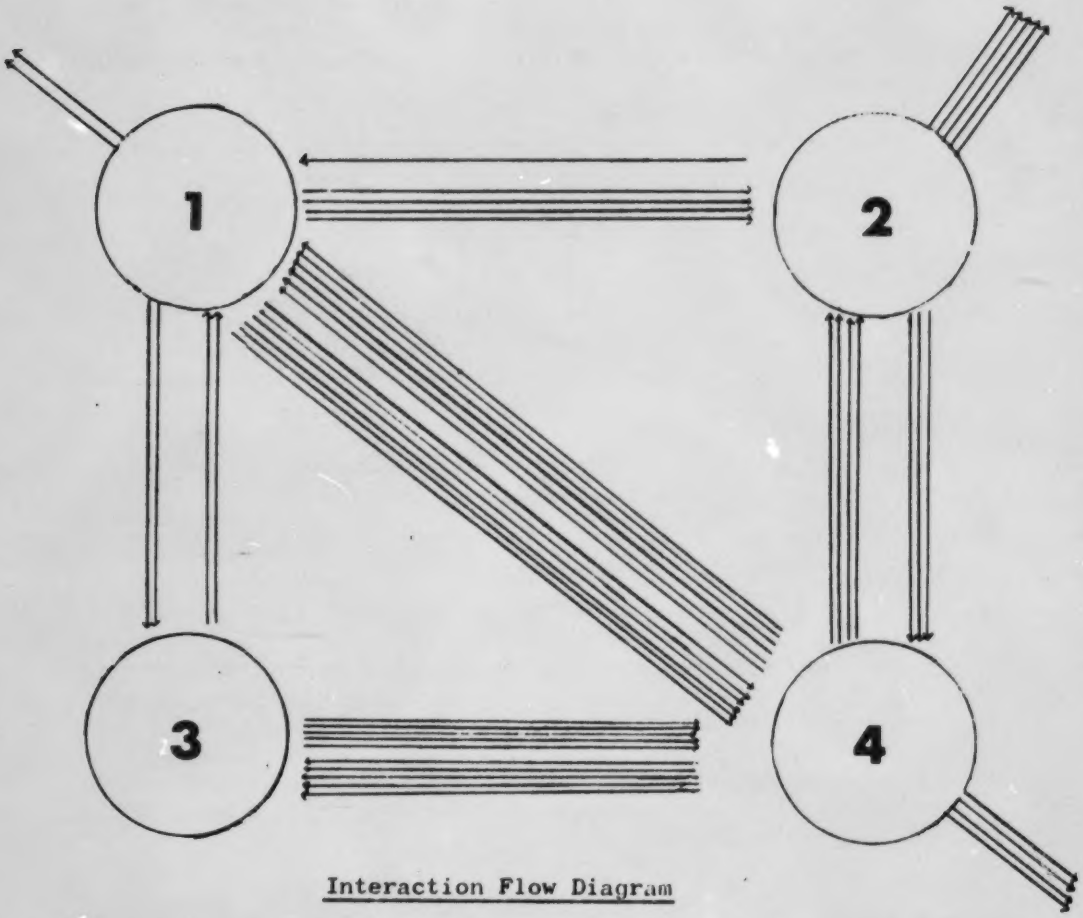
In the latter case we do begin to distinguish between monosyllabic contributions, and lengthy statements, and we normally measure this by recording interaction flow at five or ten second intervals. Whichever method we use we are able to obtain information about the percentage of interaction taken up by each individual, and the direction of comment. From this we can find out who is dominating and who is not contributing; or who are high, medium and low contributors, and what is the flow pattern between high, medium and low contributors. We do not know, of course, the content and meaning of the contributions.

3.2 The information can be presented either in the form of a matrix or in diagramatic form.

To

From	1	2	3	4	0	Total	% From
1		4	2	6	2	14	28
2	1		1	3	5	10	20
3	2	0		5	0	7	14
4	6	4	5		4	19	38
Total	9	8	8	14	11	50 50	100
% To	18	16	16	28	22	100	

Interaction Flow Matrix



Interaction Flow Diagram

3.3 There is one further technique, which records the sequence of contributions rather than the flow but does enable us to draw rather similar kinds of conclusions. By simply recording in a linear way the person making each sequential contribution, we can see the patterns of interaction over time. We are able to establish not only how many contributions a person made, but also whether these were scattered throughout the period or mostly at the end or mostly near the beginning. We can also see whether there are trios or duologues establishing themselves. Take, for example, the following sequence:

B F D B H E H B F B A C A C A E H F B F B A C E H D H F H B G H B F G C A C

This is the order in which people spoke in a task group of eight. We can see that two sub-groups were present, a trio of members B F H and a pair of members A C. The importance of being able to spot these sub-groups is that by tending to talk among themselves they reduce the extent of interaction they are prepared to have with the whole group. We can also see who are the linkmen (in this case members E and G) who transpose the discussion from one sub-group to another or to the group as a whole.

Sub-groups can be transient or stable, and it is, of couse, the stable groups that have a significant effect on the work of the group.

4. Role Analysis

4.1 Within each group, members take on roles with appropriate behaviours, and the way in which the group operates depends very much upon how these various roles combine together over any one period of time.

There have been many attempts to categorise these roles so that this can form the basis for detailed observation and analysis of the group's behaviour and operation.

4.2 One common categorisation is as follows:

4.2.1 Task Roles (i.e. functions required in selecting and carrying out a group task):

i. Initiating Activity: proposing solutions, suggesting new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new attack on the problem or new organisation of material.

ii. Seeking Information: asking for clarification of suggestions, requesting additional information or facts.

iii. Seeking Opinions: looking for an expression of feeling about something from the members, seeking clarification of values, suggestions or ideas.

iv. Giving Information: offering facts or generalisations relating one's own experience to the group's problem to illustrate points.

v. Giving Opinions: stating an opinion or belief concerning a suggestion, particularly new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new attack on the problem, or new organisation of material.

vi. Elaborating: clarifying, giving examples or developing meanings, trying to envisage how a proposal might work if adopted.

vii. Co-ordinating: showing relationships among various ideas or suggestions, putting ideas or suggestions together.

viii. Summarising: restating suggestions or ideas after discussion, stating group's position at a given point.

4.2.2 Group Maintenance Roles (functions required in strengthening and maintaining group life and activities).

i. Encouraging: being friendly, warm, responsive to others, praising others and their ideas, agreeing with and accepting the contribution of others.

ii. Gate-Keeping: helping all to contribute, keeping the group to its task.

iii. Standard Setting: expressing group standards for use in choosing its content, procedures or decisions.

iv. Expressing Group Feeling: summarising what group feeling is sensed to be, describing reactions of group to ideas.

4.2.3 Task and Maintenance Roles

i. Evaluating: measuring accomplishments against goals and standards of group.

ii. Diagnosing: determining sources of difficulties and appropriate next steps. Analysing blocks to progress.

iii. Testing for Consensus: asking for group opinion to see if decision is near, sending up trial balloons.

iv. Mediating: harmonising, conciliating differences, making compromises.

v. Relieving Tension: draining off tension through joking or changing context.

4.2.4 Some Non-Functional Roles

i. Overly Aggressive: working for status by criticising or blaming, showing hostility, deflating others.

ii. Blocking: interfering with progress, raising irrelevant or tangential issues, rejecting ideas without consideration.

iii. Self-Confessing: expressing personal, irrelevant and non-group points of view.

iv. Competing: vying with others to produce the best ideas, talking the most, trying to gain leader's favour.

v. Seeking Sympathy: inducing sympathy for personal problems or misfortunes, self disparaging.

vi. Special Pleading: introducing one's own pet concerns, or philosophies, lobbying.

vii. Horsing Around: clowning, joking, mimicking, disrupting.

viii. Seeking Recognition: calling attention to one-self through excessive or loud talking, extreme ideas or unusual behaviour.

4.3 There has been general acceptance that this more or less covers the roles and associated behaviours that are likely to be found in group operations. It is more of a problem however, to find a system of recording the activities of a group that will illuminate the pattern of role behaviour of its members. Content Analysis attempts to do this.

5. Content Analysis

5.1 Bales' Interaction Process Analysis

This, one of the earlier, and still one of the most influential systems, was devised by R.F. Bales in 1950. The hypothesis behind his twelve categories is that contributions of members can be divided into two major areas:-

those related to what he describes as socio-emotional behaviours,

those related to task-solving behaviours.

Each of these has two contrary aspects. There are negative and positive socio-emotional behaviours, and there are questioning and answering behaviours which are concerned with task-solving.

Furthermore, Bales believes that all groups by their nature have to attempt to handle six processes:-

Evaluation

Orientation

Control

Decision-Making

Integration

Tension Management

All his categories are related to these six processes, as the following chart shows:-

Task Dimension

Category	Behaviour Illustration	Problem Area
Answers		
1. Gives Suggestions	Suggests Direction, Solutions. Implying autonomy for others.	Control
2. Gives Opinions	Evaluating. Analysing. Expressing wishes or feelings.	Evaluation
3. Gives Orientation	Informing. Repeating. Confirming. Clarifying.	Orientation
Questions		
4. Asks for Orientation	Seeks information or clarification. Seeks confirmation or repetition.	Orientation
5. Asks for Opinions	Seeks evaluation, analysis, asks for expression of feelings.	Evaluation
6. Asks for Suggestions	Seeks directions, solutions.	Control

Social-Emotional Dimension

Category	Behaviour Illustration	Problem Area
Positive		
7. Shows Solidarity	Raising others status, helping, rewarding.	Integration
8. Shows Tension - Release	Joking, laughing, showing satisfaction.	Tension-Management
9. Agrees	Agreeing, passively accepting, understanding.	Decision
Negative		
10. Disagrees	Disagreeing. Showing Passive Rejection. Withholding help.	Decision
11. Shows Tension	Withdrawing. Seeking help.	Tension-Management
12. Shows Antagonism	Deflating others status. Defending or asserting self.	Integration

The Bales system of recording contributions made by members for subsequent analysis has been widely used, particularly with problem-solving groups. It is, however, a rather complicated system, not easy to use, and has been modified for these reasons into less complex forms. One other problem about it was picked up by Klein, and it is her scheme we now look at.

5.2 Klein's Interaction Schedule

Klein's scheme, which came from her studies of small group interactions and was published in 1961, draws very heavily on the work of Bales. However, she found it necessary to make a sharp distinction between factual statements and statements that had a value implication - for example:-

> "one third of those between ages 16 to 19 attend no educational institutions whatsoever".

This is clearly a factual statement.

> "It is quite wrong that only two thirds of this age group attend school or college".

This is clearly a combination of fact and value which Klein thinks is best described by the word 'view'.

So this gives a schedule as follows:-

Dimension	Category	Notation
Task related factual	Asks for information	inf -
	Gives information	inf +
Task related combining facts and values	Asks for views	vi -
	Gives views	vi +
	Disagrees	agr -
	Agrees	agr +
	Makes explicit proposals	pro

She has a further dimension, expressive of feelings which are irrelevant to the task, two of which are negative and one positive.

Dimension	Category	Notation
Task irrelevant Expressive, Evaluative only.	Expresses hostility	Expr -h
	Expresses withdrawal	Expr -w
	Expresses friendliness	Expr +f

The matrix used for scoring contributions also includes a record of who talked to whom, and certainly for team building or organisational development programmes Klein's schedule has proved very useful. One of its weaknesses is the sharp break between task and non-task behaviours, and observers have found it difficult to score behaviours which have both a task and an affective element.

5.3 Rackham's Behavioural Analysis

Rackham and his associates developed this technique originally for social skill training of supervisors within the air transport industry, but have since applied it to a wide range of other occupations and organisations. Rackham has produced a number of sets of behaviour categories, and has argued that we should be ready to change and adapt them to meet needs of the specific situation in which interaction is taking place, but the following set is very typical of the general approach. It is easy to see that these categories are very closely related to role behaviour in groups as described in Section III.

Category	Description
Proposing	A behaviour which puts forward a new concept, suggestion or course of action (and is actionable)
Building	A behaviour which extends or developes a proposal which has been made by another (and is actionable)
Supporting	A behaviour which involves a conscious or direct declaration of support or agreement with another person or his concepts
Disagreeing	A behaviour which involves a conscious or direct declaration of difference of opinion or criticism of another's concepts
Defending/Attacking	A behaviour which attacks another person or defensively strengthens an individual's own position. Attacking behaviour usually involves overt value judgements and often contains emotional overtones
Blocking/ Difficulty Stating	A behaviour which places a block or difficulty in the path of a proposal or concept without offering any alternative proposal and without offering a reasoned statement of disagreement. Blocking/Difficulty Stating behaviour tends therefore to be rather bald, e.g. 'it won't work' or 'we couldn't possibly accept that'
Open	A behaviour which exposes the individual who makes it to risk of ridicule or loss of status. This behaviour may be considered as the opposite of Defending/Attacking, including within this category admissions of mistakes or inadequacies providing that these are made in a non-defensive manner
Testing Understanding	A behaviour which seeks to establish whether or not an earlier contribution has been understood
Summarising	A behaviour which summarises, or restates in compact form, the content of previous discussions or considerations
Seeking Information	A behaviour which seeks facts, opinions or clarification from another individual or individuals
Giving Information	A behaviour which offers facts, opinions or clarification, etc.
Shutting Out	A behaviour which excludes, or attempts to exclude, another member
Bringing In	A direct and positive attempt to involve another

5.4 Rackam invited his readers to feel free to plagiarise his work, and many have done so. We give two examples here.

5.4.1 Penny Chadwick at the College for the Distributive Trades in Leicester Square has developed the following categories closely based on Rackam.

Action	Description
Innovating	Introducing new concepts. Suggesting a course of action. Note what is acknowledged and what ignored
Building	Extending or developing an innovation made by another
Supporting	Direct declaration of support or agreement with another person or concept. Group supporting - may be tension relieving activity
Disagreeing	Opposite of above
Consolidating	Restating in compact form the content of previous discussion or considerations, listing decisions taken, progress made. May set targets. Establishing whether or not earlier contributions have been understood
Defending/Attacking	Behaviour which attacks another person or defensively strengthens own position. Attacking usually involves overt value judgements and often contains emotional overtones - "This is silly"
Shutting Out	Behaviour which excludes or attempts to exclude another member
Bringing In	Direct and positive attempt to involve another
Seeking Information	Facts and opinions, clarification from others
Giving Information	Offers the above
Blocking/ Difficulty Stating	Places block or difficulty in the path of a proposal or concept without offering an alternative or a reasoned statement of disagreement. Behaviour tends to be bald. "It won't work". "We could not possibly accept that"
Multi-Speak	Includes meandering and ruminating as well as interrupting and talking-over

5.4.2 I have developed a similar list for use at Coombe Lodge. My first list failed to score adequately various kinds of negative behaviour, and it proved necessary to revise it by introducing the categories of Blocking and Shutting Out. I originally had a category called Wandering which scored various kinds of irrelevancies but in the task groups I observed it was hardly ever used.

Behaviour	Description
Directing	Contributions indicating the way a discussion should move. For example, an attempt to move onto another item and close the one under discussion; any attempt to control the programming
Bringing In/ Shutting Out	Contributions aimed at bringing someone into the discussion or keeping someone out.
Introducing	Contributions which start off a new line of discussion
Building	Contributions which develop the topic under discussion, arguing either in favour or against, modifying or expanding. It is sometimes a fine point to decide whether a contribution has diverted the line of discussion enough to be classed as Introducing, or whether it is further Building the existing argument
Blocking	Contributions which put difficulties in the way or attack a person or proposal without giving any reasons. Often expressed in emotional or hostile terms
Questioning	Contributions addressed specifically to one person, to obtain specific information or explanation or comment. It should not be confused with general questions to the group which in fact are statements of a Directing, Building or Introducing nature. Nor should it be confused with a Bringing In contribution, which may be put in the form of a question
Requesting Information/ Giving Information	No explanation needed
Rounding	Contributions which attempt to summarise what has been said by oneself or others, either accurately or inaccurately
Supporting	Contributions which agree with a previous speaker either briefly or by repeating what has been said at some length
Tension-Reducing/ Facilitating	Contributions aimed at clearing the air, breaking tension, facilitating progress particularly when the situation is turbulent, frustrating or intense. Generally done by a humorous remark
Multi-Speak	Occasions when more than one member speaks at the same time

I make the point to emphasise that categories should be modified and changed as seems appropriate, and not treated as sacrosanct once you have got them.

5.4.3 An example of using the categories:

Bill: Well, I think we have thrashed that one around enough. We'll move onto the next point. (DIRECTING)

Deirdre: But what have we decided, Bill? (QUESTIONING)

Bill: As I see it, there seems to be a consensus that, while the course is worthwhile, it is not worth the cost and is duplicating other courses elsewhere. (ROUNDING)

Anne: Yes, that's about it. (SUPPORTING)

Charles: On the next point of the Agenda I want to say straight away that I think this scheme of staff assessment is unethical. (INTRODUCING)

Eric: Why do you say that? (QUESTIONING)

Frances: Surely it is obvious. It involves one teacher being subjected to the observation of a group of other teachers and then being told how good or bad he is. That might be putting it crudely but that's what it is really all about. (BUILDING)

Deirdre: Oh no, surely .....)

Charles: We can't have .....) (MULTI-SPEAK)

Eric: Yes, that's absolutely .....)

Bill: Come on, let's have one at a time. (DIRECTING)
What were you going to say Deirdre? (BRINGING IN)

Deirdre: I don't think Fran has read the paper - it doesn't say that at all. It's supposed to be a self-help group and in any case it's voluntary. (BUILDING)

Charles: Trust you to support it. (BLOCKING)

Bill (to Charles): Could you explain exactly what you mean by that. (QUESTIONING)

Deirdre: I don't think it will be worth listening to. (SHUTTING OUT)

Charles: Maybe not, but it gets us nearer to coffee time. Sorry Deirdre. Forget I spoke. (TENSION REDUCING)

Eric: As a matter of information I have heard from 27 staff who would like to take part. (INFORMATION GIVING)

Bill: Thanks Eric. (SUPPORTING) Could I hear from those who have objections to the scheme. (DIRECTING)

Readers might like to analyse the dialogue using Bales' and Klein's scheme.

6. Conclusion. Overall Assessment of the Group

6.1 Whatever system or technique we use for looking at the interactions within a group, we have to interpret the evidence we get against our total impression of the group. In particular we might observe how the group divided its time on various tasks, how it handled overt conflict, how it made its decisions, how it dealt with minority opinions, what kind of group norms were established.

6.2 There are four conditions, which can become pathological, which the group might exhibit:

6.2.1 The group might show great reluctance to get down to the job in hand. There is always an initial reluctance to do this in the first two or three minutes, but it can be a more prolonged condition. Constant complaints about the room or the chairs, the raising of points of order and long discussions on consitutional points, the challenging of the relevance of the task set or complaints about lack of sufficient information and supporting evidence, may really be devices to avoid facing the real problem the group has got.

6.2.2 The group might find itself witnessing gladiatorial combat between two or more members who use the meeting to carry on a conflict which already exists outside the group and has nothing to do with the job in hand even if that is apparently what they are discussing. Alternatively the group might identify outside enemies and spend time away from the real task in attacking these.

6.2.3 The group can allow itself to become dependent upon one person in the group for doing much of the work. It is likely to do this because it is convenient and allows the work to progress rapidly, but it really makes nonsense of the existence of the group.

6.2.4 The group may split up into the kinds of sub-groups we described earlier. Cohesion of the groups is then lost, and decisions reached may well be those of part of the group, rather than the group as a whole.

These four conditions in groups are sometimes called:

FLIGHT FIGHT DEPENDENCY PAIRING

6.2.5 Bion, who developed this line of analysis, argues that the group as it moves out of these conditions develops the ability to tolerate ambiguity and ambivalence and to avoid fantasy thinking and splitting. What he means by that is that the members of a mature task group are able to accept and hold conflicting feelings towards a person or institution, and avoid the device of splitting them into good or bad categories. Likewise the members move away from illusions that the state of affairs they desire will be brought about 'magically' by some outside agency or person without any work or intervention by themselves.

7. Final Statement

7.1 In conclusion, whatever it is that observers or group trainers record and under whatever system, it is essential that there is rapid feedback to members if they are to improve their performance and skill.

APPENDICES

Attached are worksheets which can be used for scoring group interaction.

Appendix A	Bales' Interaction Process Analysis Worksheet
Appendix B	Klein's Interaction Process Schedule
Appendix C	College for the Distributive Trades: Rackham-type Worksheet
Appendix D	Coombe Lodge: Rackham-type Worksheet

****

APPENDIX A

INTERACTION PROCESS ANALYSIS - WORKSHEET

			1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
S.E.+	1.	SHOWS SOLIDARITY: RAISES OTHERS STATUS: GIVES HELP: REWARD							
	2.	SHOWS TENSION RELEASE: JOKES: LAUGHS: SHOWS SATISFACTION							
	3.	AGREES: SHOWS PASSIVE ACCEPTANCE: UNDERSTANDS: CONCURS: COMPLIES							
TASK TELLS	4.	GIVES SUGGESTION: DIRECTION: IMPLYING AUTONOMY FOR OTHERS							
	5.	GIVES OPINION: EVALUATION: ANALYSIS: EXPRESSES FEELING/ WISH							
	6.	GIVES ORIENTATION: INFORMATION: REPEATS: CLARIFIES: CONFIRMS							
TASK ASKS	7.	ASKS FOR ORIENTATION: INFORMATION: REPETITION: CONFIRMATION							
	8.	ASKS FOR OPINION: EVALUATION: ANALYSIS: EXPRESSION OF FEELING							
	9.	ASKS FOR SUGGESTION: DIRECTION: POSSIBLE WAYS OF ACTION							
S.E.-	10.	DISAGREES: SHOWS PASSIVE REJECTION: FORMALITY: WITHHOLDS HELP							
	11.	SHOWS TENSION: ASKS FOR HELP: WITHDRAWS OUT OF FIELD							
	12.	SHOWS ANTAGONISM: DEFLATES OTHERS STATUS: DEFENDS OR ASSERTS SELF							

APPENDIX B

INTERACTION PROCESS SCHEDULE

(Josephine Klein 1961)

FROM WHOM?	TO WHOM?	TASK RELATED ← → EXPRESSIVE										CONTENT REMINDER
		INF+	INF-	VI+	VI-	(PRO)	AGR+	AGR-	F	H	W	

INF+	gives information	PRO	makes explicit proposal	H	expresses hostility
INF-	asks for information	AGR+	agrees	W	expresses withdrawal
VI+	gives views	AGR-	disagrees		
VI-	asks for views	F	expresses friendliness		

Josephine Klein - Working with Groups 1961 Hutchinson
University Library London

APPENDIX C

COLLEGE FOR THE DISTRIBUTIVE TRADES (Department of Management Studies)

GROUP BEHAVIOUR OBSERVATION SHEET

NAMES ACTIONS								
INNOVATING								
BUILDING								
SUPPORTING								
DISAGREEING								
CONSOLIDATING								
DEFENDING/ ATTACKING								
SHUTTING OUT								
BRINGING IN								
SEEKING INFORMATION								
BLOCKING/ DIFFICULTY STATING								
MULTI-SPEAK								
TOTAL ACTIONS								

APPENDIX D

RECORD SHEET 3

	Anne	Bill	Christine	David	Erica	Frank	Gail	Henry			TOTAL
DIRECTING											
BRINGING IN/ SHUTTING OUT											
INTRODUCING											
BUILDING											
BLOCKING											
QUESTIONING											
GIVING INFORMATION											
ROUNDING											
SUPPORTING											
TENSION REDUCING FACILITATING											
MULTI-SPEAK											
TOTAL											

Further Reading

A good and short introduction to this topic is the following:

1. Dyar, D.A. and Giles, W.J. 'Improving Skills in Working with People: Interaction Analysis'.

   Training Information Paper 7. Training Services Agency. Published by HMSO 1974.

Explanations of their particular systems are made by the authors in the following books:

2. Bales, R.F. 'Interaction Process Analysis' Addison-Wesley 1950.

3. Klein, J. 'Working with Groups' Hutchinson 1963.

4. Rackham N. et al. 'Developing Interactive Skills' Wellens 1971.

Rackham's book is particularly recommended as a follow-up to Dyar and Giles' text.

5. Bion, W.R. 'Experiences in Groups' Tavistock 1961.

The diagrams and tables on pp. 14, 15, 17, 23 and 25 are adapted from Dyar and Giles text.

PAPER 3

FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES OF GROUPS

A PAPER BY RUSS RUSSELL

PAPER NO. 3

THE FUNCTIONING OF GROUPS WITHIN ORGANISATIONS

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THE FUNCTIONING OF GROUPS WITHIN ORGANISATIONS

(with some special references to Further Education)

1. Introduction

1.1 Most schemes for developing inter-personal skills for use within organisations pay attention to work within groups. A frequent initial response to such schemes is that they are interesting, but doubt may be expressed that training can be effective. The effectiveness of such training is hard to measure but even before we attempt it we should recognise that, since there are different functions of groups within organisations, we will need to establish criteria of success according to our understanding of these functions. This note is an attempt to initially delineate such functions. It should be stressed that any given group may, in the course of a few minutes, pass from one function or mode of operation to another, and that the possibility of confusion of functions exists for all members.

2. Membership-Maintaining Functions

2.1 We all possess multiple identities that are connected to a multiplicity of groups that we belong to. All groups need to re-make group-membership identities if the groups are to exist. A thousand powerful symbols and rituals re-make and reinforce this; the fence, the clocking-in, the headed notepaper, the gavel hammered at the beginning of a meeting, to drive out all other identities, or to signal their permitted re-entry. A staff assembly may be called at the beginning of the year (to dis-establish a holiday-entity) at the end of the year (to give prizes and stress common membership pride), to present retirement gifts (a ritual which emphasises that those who 'present' are still members) and so on. Within meetings formal welcomes of visitors, and short opening speeches, the chairman's thanks for attendance, formal adjournment for tea, all serve to define formal membership as well as formal action-time.

3. Communications Functions

3.1 Frequently some meetings are justified in terms of ease of communications. A meeting of all part-time staff is called 'to issue registers', 'to communicate new administrative procedures', 'to clear up one or two things'. Almost certainly these meetings are primarily fulfilling the membership-maintaining function, and communication is a second priority. All tests show that communication from central personnel is largely ineffective if these groups are relied on as the main communications medium. Yet communication back of unsolved problems, attitudes or uncertainties can be obtained from groups if the communications out are carried primarily in pre-meeting written communications. If meetings are to be used for communications the nature and direction of messages should be clarified.

4. Command-Advisory Meeting

4.1 Most schools or colleges have a Head, a Principal, a Director or a 'Commander'. Close to him are a group of senior executives on whom he relies both to put his decisions into effect and for advice. Often a style of using this advice and taking decisions is adopted that bears a relationship to a military style, where alternative types of action have their advantages and disadvantages explored while the person in authority listens to the debate. No attempt is made to form a consensus or a majority decision for any such attempt would imply a shift of authority to the group. The discussion is terminated when the person in authority arrives at his decision. To a greater or lesser extent this approach exists in all hierarchies and is used to some degree by all who hold authority. The advisors may be specialists, outsiders or more junior staff. The characteristics of this group process is the reservation of authority to decide. On certain issues a Principal may use his Heads of Department meeting like this; on other occasions a Head of Department may use his Section Leaders like this.

5. Resource-Group Meeting

5.1 Very few bureaucracies give a person in authority the absolute right to hire or fire his subordinates, thus all have a measure of independence. Many tasks can only be effectively carried out with the enthusiastic co-operation of a team. Many organisations reserve certain rights and functions to individual posts in documents, charters or job-descriptions so that co-operation must be sought. On these occasions the key group must be treated in much the same way as a rude federation of neighbouring barons or pirates: they have powerful resources (primarily their own staff loyalty) necessary for a common venture. In a college the co-operation of the Heads of Department must be negotiated if, for example, a common policy (if it is desired) on staff discipline, student enrolment procedures, relations with firms or schools, examinations is to succeed. The constitution of Academic Boards frequently reserves departmental academic matters to that Department Board of Study, thus reinforcing the ability of the Barons to resist the Sovereign. Frequently the underlying tone is one of exchange; co-operation given now becomes a store of goodwill to be drawn from in the future. The Chief Administrative Officer can co-operate now by providing good central reprographic services in exchange for co-operation with a new computerised enrolment card later; and so on. When a meeting is dominated by this implied negotiation context we can call it a resource-group meeting.

6. Authoritative-Decision Groups

6.1 The term authoritative-decision draws attention to the fact that not all decisions are seen as having been taken by an appropriate authoritative body. The process whereby individuals see groups as being authoritative are difficult to describe and subject to wider and very powerful social influences. Powerful symbolic value words such as 'democratic' exist: and their importance is spreading. Increasingly workers are not content to work in unmodified hierarchies and demand participation and democratic process within the work organisations and about work itself. The 1968 (No.2) Education Act and DES Circular 7/70 recognise and further this trend. Since 7/70 was issued it is simply no longer possible to take certain sorts of decisions except in Academic Boards. Yet these are not the only

authority-conferring bodies. The more a group of staff are consulted, the more they expect to be, and the more a lone decision is seen as improper. The conferring of authority on a decision is marked often by the formal symbols of the public democratic order, elections, standing orders, formal resolutions, minutes, voting on resolutions, receipt of reports, etc. These symbolic acts are not in themselves authority conferring but merely indications of a particular democratic tradition. Hectoring displays of public rhetoric are important as they refer and are addressed as much to constituency bases rather than the meeting and its decision processes. The size of meeting that is necessary and other behaviours in it may frequently hinder the processes of sifting and evaluating ideas in order to reach a decision. Such work is frequently delegated to a working party or task group.

7. Task Groups

7.1 Task groups are groups that have a specific task of making a decision on a narrow or small issue in the college's work. They exist to produce, criticise, evaluate and sift ideas and make decisions: and our ideas of how they should work are determined by this. In dealing with new problems it may be very sensible to apply the experience, ideas and critical powers of several individuals since this is more likely to produce and criticise action plans effectively than one individual acting on his own. If the group is too big then ideas may be inadequately presented or defended and so lost. For the purposes of this sort of group activity it may be desirable to treat all members as equal and to ask them to keep all external identities to a minimum in the interaction. Typical examples of task groups may be a working party of the academic board on staff development, or an executive working party on a new enrolment form and procedure.

8. Implementation Groups

8.1 Within task groups we may distinguish a sub-set of implementation groups; where the membership comprises the de facto executive, but in distinction from resource groups, the executive resources are simply the will and time of the membership, or resources allocated to the group. A course or curriculum committee, or a Christmas Party working group are examples of these.

9. Advisory Committees

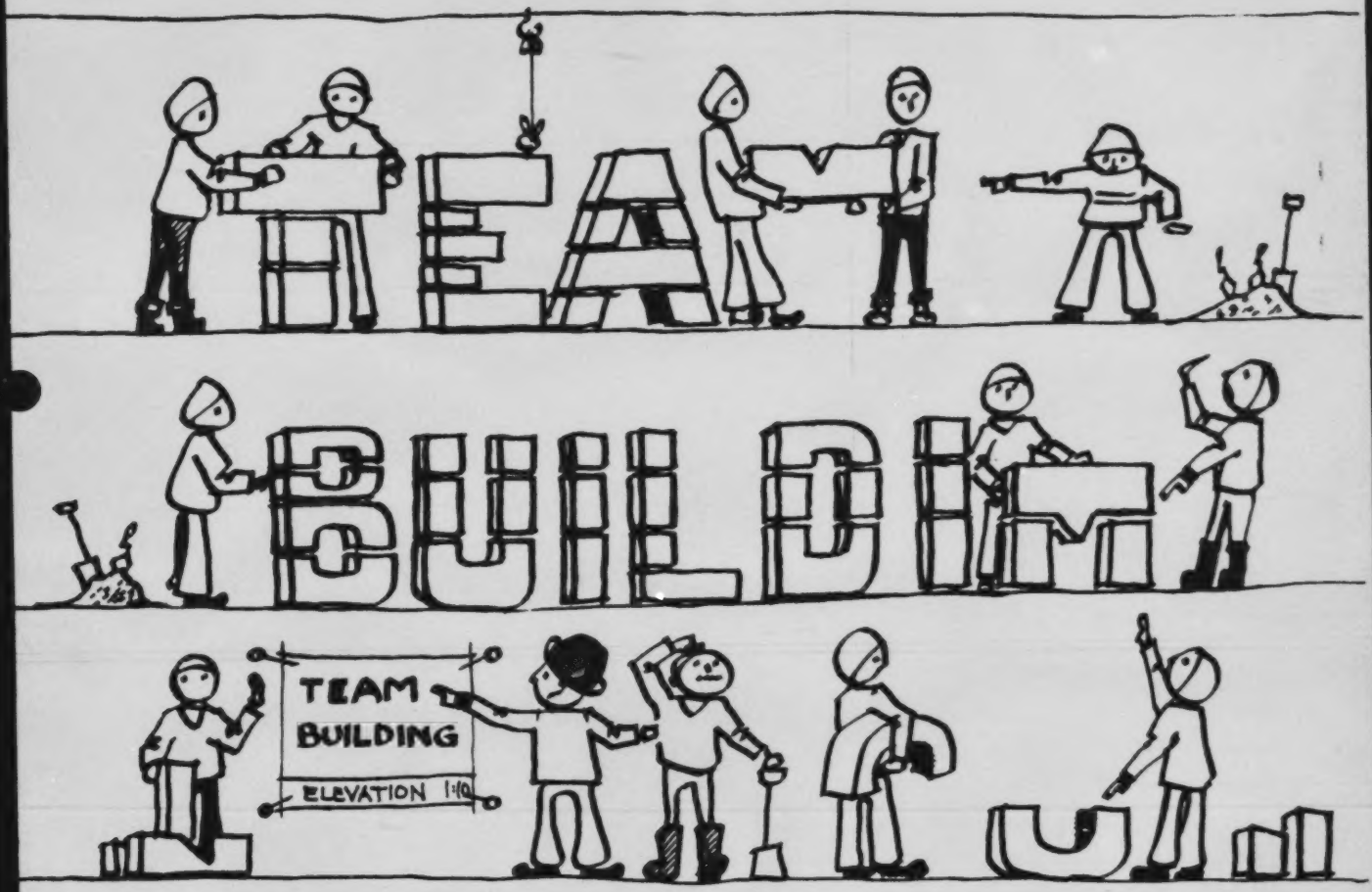
9.1 A task group as described above usually has effective authority but a hybrid type of Advisory Meeting or Task Group exists in most educational establishments. In this case the authoritative body is either not present (e.g. Principal) or cannot be (e.g. Academic Board) but the authoritative action lies elsewhere. What distinguishes this from a task group is the implication that it can advise on alternative actions. Most task groups have a clear brief to recommend or act on a single course of action. An advisory committee, or standing advisory committee may be expected to display alternatives, or to describe consequences rather than evaluate. It may be able to meet on its own initiative, to construct reports, and to warn of future difficulties.

10. Ideology of Action in Groups

10.1 Much group training tends to assume a high valuation of the group, or the parent organisation of the member group. It devalues by implication alternative identity sources and individual 'political' preferences. Group trainers frequently use pejorative phrases like 'unhealthy-group-behaviour' or 'immature-attitudes', and thus mask the implicit values of consensus. It is simply not adequate to use these phrases independently of a clearly expressed ideological position in regard to a specific group situation and action in that situation. Political preferences exist inside and outside groups and the attitudes of an individual may be mature, healthy and skillfully trying to consistently establish a viewpoint in a variety of resource-group meetings, authoritative meetings, and advisory groups; but measures of effectiveness must relate either to his own purpose or to another purpose. It does not seem likely that effective or healthy or mature behaviour in all the above circumstances can be measured constantly throughout all types of group situations. Our analytic evaluation and training framework should relate to varieties of purpose.

****

PAPER 4



TEAM BUILDING

PAPER NO. 4

TEAM BUILDING

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TEAM DEVELOPMENT OR TEAM BUILDING

1. Introduction

1.1 In much of our day-to-day work as educational managers, we are likely to be involved with groups - Governing Bodies, Academic Boards, Working Parties, Project Groups, etc. It is a hard fact of modern organisational life that much of our work has to be initiated, monitored and achieved not by individuals working on their own, but working in conjunction with others, both formally and informally.

1.2 A characteristic of most teams is that they are usually a fairly small group of people with differing backgrounds, skills and knowledge working together on specific and defined tasks. Members are interdependent in that the successful completion of the task requires contributions from each member. So we can conveniently define our team as being fairly permanent, with members in reasonably frequent interaction, with inter-dependent behaviour aimed at the achievement of some common task.

1.3 There is nothing very original in the use of teams. What is relatively new is the application of the team as a conscious and deliberate design structure in organisations, as for example, in the Corporate Management approach in Local Government.

2. The Value of the Team Approach

2.1 As an organisational structure, the team possesses strengths and weaknesses. Among strengths we can number the following:

a. Each member's specialist knowledge and skills can be used and co-ordinated to the achievement of the common task.

b. Each member has knowledge of the whole work area, and individual responsibility for the whole as well as individual parts.

c. There is a potential of adaptability, with a high degree of receptivity to new ideas and new ways of operating.

d. There is a reduction of functional isolation and parochialism.

2.2 Among weaknesses we can include the following:

a. A lack of clarity in communication and decision-making.

b. Low economy as a large proportion of the energy of all the members is used in keeping activities going, e.g. the management of relationships of members, explanations and deliberations.

3. The Objectives of Team Building

3.1 A large number of the educational managers who have to work with others in some kind of group or team effort often express grave doubts about the value of working in that way. They frequently come out of meetings with phrases such as:

"We never seem to get anywhere."
"It's just a lot of talk, we go round and round in circles."
"We all seem to be pulling in different directions."

3.2 I want to make a point that is absolutely fundamental to the position argued in this paper. I believe that nearly all of us are unskilful at handling co-operative relationships in groups or teams. The reason for this I would argue is that the whole of our educational experience from when we first went to school has been competitive. We are judged as better than some, worse than others, with our individual place on the mark list. Our educational experience is also individualistic in that we are judged on our own efforts, and we see our work only as something that concerns ourselves and our teacher. What others are doing, and what I do in co-operation with others is of no account.

3.3 So, being both competitive and individualistic is second nature to us in our work in the college, and the managing structures and operating methods have been set up with this in mind. So, it is not surprising that we are not very happy or effective when we have to come to work in teams. Among some of the pervasive habits we demonstrate in team activity are:

Competition:	"I must score all the points."
Withdrawal:	"This is all a waste of time."
Lack of Trust:	"He will stab me in the back."
Secretiveness:	"I'm not sharing this with the rest."
Fight for resources:	"I'm getting my fair share."
Control:	"I'm going to get my way."

3.4 So, the stance we take is that there is a skill in operating in a team, just as there is in playing golf, wiring up an electronic unit, or painting a wall. The key concept in team building is simply the belief that teams of people can be consciously trained within a coherent programme to become more effective.

4. Skills in Team Building

4.1 What is involved in skill training in Team Building? Let us differentiate between two different kinds of skills. When a group of people work together on a complex task, they use their abilities in two ways. One is dealing with the job to be performed in which they use their professional or technical skills. The other is in dealing with other members of the team, the process of human interaction. The interaction between people is a function of the way they think, the way they act, the way they feel, and of the values they respect. It is also related to the environment, how they are affected by it, and what they do to control it.

4.2 Those skills which are relevant to achieving the task we will call task skills. They are:

1. Defining what the task is.
2. Mobilising the resources and skills needed.
3. Making decisions to achieve the task.

Those skills which are relevant to working together with other people we will call process skills. They are:

1. Understanding the roles played by people in the group.
2. Improving communications between members.
3. Understanding the dynamics of the group.
4. Handling conflict in the group.
5. Increasing co-operative and collaborative activities.

4.3 A distinction can be made between what is being done and how it is being done, i.e. between task and process - How well we accomplish the task is influenced by what happens in terms of process. Task skills are the necessary conditions for team achievement but by themselves are not sufficient. Sufficiency also depends on process skills. Traditionally the educational world has recognised and developed task skills, but it has largely ignored the process skills and often discouraged shared effort. It is not surprising that for many adults of today the abilities required to work effectively as a team leader or member of a team do not come naturally.

4.4 So team building is a deliberate and planned effort to produce an effective team by the development of the necessary (task-related) and sufficient (process-related) skills.

5. Methods of Team Building

5.1 One increasingly popular method is the use of a package programme developed at the Massachussetts Institute of Technology by Rubin, Plovnick and Fry. This has been used by P.A. International Management Consultants Limited with a number of organisations.

it consists of three phases:

5.2 Phase I is a diagnostic phase. By in-depth interviewing of all the members of the team and possibly by the use of questionnaires the trainer is able to elicit how the team thinks that it is operating and what are the problems and contradictions that have emerged. The information, which often contains direct disagreements as to what the team is supposed to be doing, is fed back to the team, and as a result of the subsequent discussion, it should be possible to draw up an agenda of the problems that the group now sees.

5.3 Phase 2 is concerned with Developing Skills and Awareness. The eight modules, each built round a half day meeting, aim to develop the ability to clarify objectives and organisational roles, and to increase sensitivity and understanding of the team's processes. The kind of areas covered include the following:

> Agreement on the goals of the team, on what the team wants to do, on who is doing what. An understanding of role negotiation, feedback to members of their positive and negative role contributions. An understanding of the way in which the team proceeds to make decisions. The kind of behaviour manifest by individuals and the team as a whole in working towards performance of the task. An exploration of how people feel working in the group, and the effect feelings have on performance - this might be supported by using encounter techniques or sensitivity training.

5.4 Phase 3 is concerned with transferring the skills learnt or improved in the previous phase back to the organisation. The team has another look at its objectives and procedures to see if they can now be improved and from that is drawn up an Action Plan which should be the justification for the claim that this experience in team training has been of benefit.

6. Possibilities for the FE College

A Case Study written by Norman Clegg

6.1 The College of FE can probably not afford this kind of outside consultancy service, and indeed may not desire it, but much can be done by the College itself if there is a genuine commitment to team training. We describe here a case study involving two examples of team building taken from North Nottinghamshire College of Further Education.

6.2 The Principal was in 1973 testing out as part of a research project the hypothesis that the College would become a more effective organisation as it became a more participative one. As part of the work pilot schemes on team building were conducted on two natural work teams. One was the Senior Staff Management Team, consisting of the Principal, Vice-Principal, seven Heads of Academic Department, Registrar and Principal's Assistant. The team satisfied the criteria at the beginning of this paper in being permanent, in frequent interaction (once a week), with high interdependency and common tasks to be achieved.

6.3 In fifteen meetings each of one and a half hours the team went through a programme of team building, using relevant group theory (tutored by the Principal) and various instruments or questionnaires. Areas covered included:

- the distinction between task and process
- characteristics of highly developed effective groups
- roles and role development in groups
- norms developed within teams

6.4 The second team involved in this experience was the Work Preparation Department which was responsible for the education and training of handicapped young people. It was formed in September 1972 and consisted of nine people. As a relatively new team, many members did not appear to feel free enough to contribute fully and, therefore, greater emphasis was placed upon process considerations. Areas covered, extra to those covered by the Senior Staff team included:

- group formation
- communication
- leadership
- decision making

6.5 Apart from self-assessment and subjective feelings, the teams were able to check their progress by the use of two questionnaires. The first of these is:

The Likert Short Management System Questionnaire

6.6 Likert assumes that organisations can be classified on a continuum within which there are four main types:

Type 1 Exploitive - Authoritative
Type 2 Benevolent - Authoritative
Type 3 Consultative
Type 4 Participative

These are described in Appendix A.

The questionnaire which is reproduced in Appendix B divides its twenty-two responses into seven areas which are seen as organisational operating practices:

a. Leadership Processes Used.

b. Character of Motivational Forces.

c. Character of Communicative Processes.

d. Character of Interaction - Influence Processes.

e. Character of Decision-Making Processes.

f. Character of Goal-Setting or Ordering Processes.

g. Character of Control Processes.

Generally there is consistency in responses across all the areas, as a style and philosophy of management tends to permeate all aspects of an organisation.

If we use the Senior Staff team as an example, this team identified itself in December 1972 as operating the Type 3 consultative system and as believing that its required future organisation should be in Type 4 participative system (Appendix D2). After six months of team training the members had pushed still further into Type 4 their view of the required organisation, and now identified themselves as actually operating just into Type 4 (Appendix D3). Large moves were made in:

The manner in which motives are used.

The accuracy of upward communication via line level at which formal decisions are made.

Extent to which review and control functions are concentrated.

Extent to which people's activities go against or support formal goals.

If this particular instrument has any accuracy this means that both actual practice and desired practice had made substantial shifts during an observed period of team building.

The second instrument used was:

McGregor's Team Development Scale (Appendix C)

6.7 This scale measures the attitudes members have to their team on the following eight criteria:

Degree of Mutual Trust

Openness of Communications

Degree of Mutual Support

Understanding of Objectives

Handling of Team Conflict

Utilisation of Member Resources

Control Methods

Degree of Freedom of Organisational Environment

Over the two and a half years from May 1973, the Senior Staff team has perceived substantial shifts of perception on all eight dimensions, as shown in Appendix E. In plain terms, this means members now see in the team:

Greater trust and less suspicion

More open and less guarded communications

More support for each other

Greater understanding of team objectives

More acceptance and less suppression of conflicts

Better use of the competencies of the team

Control more from within than imposed from outside

A freer supportive environment, less restrictive and conformist

If this accurately represents what actually happened, then team building was an activity of considerable significance in the College.

7. Conclusion

Two approaches to team building have been referred to. There are, of course, other approaches and each organisation will have to find out for itself what particular approach most suits it. The most important decision, however, is not what techniques are used, but the commitment of a college or a team within a college to the belief that their performance can be improved by conscious effort.

****

APPENDIX A

LIKERT'S DEFINITION OF MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

System 1

This management system assumes that labour is largely a market commodity, with time freely sold and purchased. It conceives of the manager's job as consisting of decision, direction, and surveillance, relies primarily upon coercion as a motivating force, and makes little or no provision for the effects of human emotion and interdependence. As a result, communication in this system is sluggish, largely downward in direction, and frequently distorted. Goals are established and decisions made by top management only, based upon fragmentary, often inaccurate and inadequate information. This produces disparity between the desires and interests of the members and the goals of the organisation. For these reasons, only high levels of the organisation feel any real responsibility for the attainment of established objectives. Their reliance upon coercion as a motivating force leads to an almost total absence of co-operative teamwork and mutual influence and to a quite low true ability of superiors to exercise control in the work situation. Dissatisfaction is prevalent, with subservient attitudes towards superiors, hostility toward peers, and contempt for subordinates. Performance is usually mediocre, with high costs, excessive absence, and substantial manpower turnover. Quality is maintained only by extensive surveillance and a great deal of rework.

System 2

The management system assumes that labour is a market commodity, but an imperfect one: Once purchased, it is susceptible to periodic emotional and interpersonal "interferences". Consequently, to decision, direction, and surveillance it adds a fourth managerial duty: expurgating the annoying effect of subordinate members. This fact permits some small amount of upward and lateral communication, although most is downward, and sizeable distortion usually exists. Policies are established and basic decisions made by upper management, sometimes with opportunity for comment from subordinate supervisory levels. Some minor implementation decisions may be made at lower levels, but only within the carefully prescribed limits set by the top echelon. Managerial personnel, therefore, usually feel responsibility for attaining the assigned objectives, whereas rank-and-file members usually feel little or none. Very little co-operative teamwork exists, and superiors at lower echelons are able to exercise only moderate true control in the work situation. Attitudes toward superiors are subservient, and hostility is prevalent towards peers, but the absence of open contempt towards subordinates makes dissatisfaction less intense. Performance may be fair to good, although high costs, absence, and manpower turnover frequently occur.

System 3

This management system does not assume labour to be a market commodity. It still reserves to the manager the tasks of decision, and direction, but removes surveillance as a major function. Little recourse to coercion occurs. In their places recognition of the frequently disruptive effects of human emotion is expanded to include employee involvement through consultation. This practice encourages a moderate amount of valid upward communication, although lateral communication is limited by the prevalence of man-to-man, rather than group, decision-making. Communication is, therefore, usually accurate and only occasionally

distorted. In line with this, broad policy decisions are made at the top, but specific objectives to implement these policies are entrusted to lower managers for consultative decision-making. For all these reasons, a substantial proportion of the members of the organisation feel responsible for attaining established objectives, and the system makes use of most positive motivational forces, except those which would otherwise arise from group processes. Some dissatisfaction may exist, but normally satisfaction is moderately high, with only some degree of hostility expressed towards peers, some condescension toward subordinates. Performance is ordinarily good; costs, absence, and turnover moderate; and quality problems no cause for major concern.

System 4

This management system assumes that employees are essential parts of an organisational structure which has been built at great cost and necessarily maintained with the same attention and care given more tangible assets. It conceives of decision as a process, rather than a prerogative, with the manager's responsibility consisting, not of himself deciding, but of making sure that the best possible decisions result. In this light, he focuses his efforts upon building an overlapping structure of cohesive, highly motivated, participative groups, co-ordinated by high mutual confidence and trust, communication is adequate, rapid and accurate. Because goals are established and decisions made with the participation of all those affected, objectives are comparatively closely aligned with the needs and interests of all members, and all motivational forces push in the direction of obtaining the established objectives. The closely knit system in addition permits superiors and subordinates alike to exercise great control over the work situation. Employees at all levels are highly satisfied, but without complacency, and feel great reciprocal respect and trust. Performance is very good; costs, absence and turnover are low; and high quality is the natural concern of all.

****

APPENDIX B

LIKERT'S SHORT MANAGEMENT SYSTEM QUESTIONNAIRE

Organizational variable				
1. Leadership processes used				
Extent to which superiors have confidence and trust in subordinates	Have no confidence and trust in subordinates	Have condescending confidence and trust, such as master has to servant	Substantial but not complete confidence and trust, still wishes to keep control of decisions	Complete confidence and trust in all matters
Extent to which superiors behave so that subordinates feel free to discuss important things about their jobs with their immediate superior	Subordinates do not feel at all free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates do not feel very free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates feel rather free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates feel completely free to discuss things about the job with their superior
Extent to which immediate superior in solving job problems generally tries to get subordinates' ideas and opinions and make constructive use of them	Seldom gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems	Sometimes gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems	Usually gets ideas and opinions and usually tries to make constructive use of them	Always gets ideas and opinions and always tries to make constructive use of them
2. Character of motivational forces				
Manner in which motives are used	Fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards	Rewards and some actual or potential punishment	Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement	Economic rewards based on compensation system developed through participation; group participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress toward goals, etc.

APPENDIX B (cont.)

Organizational variable				
Amount of responsibility felt by each member of organization for achieving organization's goals	High levels of management feel responsibility; lower levels feel less; rank and file feel little and often welcome opportunity to behave in ways to defeat organization's goals	Managerial personnel usually feel responsibility; rank and file usually feel relatively little responsibility for achieving organization's goals	Substantial proportion of personnel, especially at high levels, feel responsibility and generally behave in ways to achieve the organization's goals	Personnel at all levels feel real responsibility fo organization's goals and behave ways to implement them
3. Character of communication process				
Amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving organization's objectives	Very little	Little	Quite a bit	Much with both individuals and groups
Direction of information flow	Downward	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up, and with peers
Extent to which downward communications are accepted by subordinates	Viewed with great suspicion	May or may not be viewed with suspicion	Often accepted but at times viewed with suspicion; may or may not be openly questioned	Generally accepte but if not, op and candidly questioned
Accuracy of upward communication via line	Tends to be inaccurate	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information is restricted and filtered	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information may be limited or cautiously given	Accurate
Psychological closeness of superiors to subordinates (i.e. how well does superior know and understand problems faced by subordinates?)	Has no knowledge or understanding of problems of subordinates	Has some knowledge and understanding of problems of subordinates	Knows and understands problems of subordinates quite well	Knows and understands problems subordinates very well
4. Character of interaction-influence process				
Amount and character of interaction	Little interaction and always with fear and distrust	Little interaction and usually with some condescention by superiors; fear and caution by subordinates	Moderate interaction, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friend interaction with high degree of co fidence and trust
Amount of cooperative teamwork present	None	Relatively little	A moderate amount	Very substantial amount throughout the organization

APPENDIX B (cont.)

Organizational variable				
5. Character of decision-making process				
At what level in organization are decisions formally made?	Bulk of decisions at top of organization	Policy at top, many decisions within prescribed framework made at lower levels	Broad policy and general decisions at top, more specific decisions at lower levels	Decision-making widely done throughout organization, although well integrated through linking process provided by overlapping groups
To what extent are decision makers aware of problems, particularly those at lower levels in the organization?	Often are unaware or only partially aware	Aware of some, unaware of others	Moderately aware of problems	Generally quite well aware of problems
Extent to which technical and professional knowledge is used in decision-making	Used only if possessed at higher levels	Much of what is available in higher and middle levels is used	Much of what is available in higher, middle, and lower levels is used	Most of what is available anywhere within the organization is used
To what extent are subordinates involved in decisions related to their work?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions; occasionally consulted	Usually are consulted but ordinarily not involved in the decision making	Are involved fully in all decisions related to their work
Are decisions made at the best level in the organization so far as the motivational consequences (i.e., does the decision-making process help to create the necessary motivations in those persons who have to carry out the decisions?)	Decision-making contributes little or nothing to the motivation to implement the decision, usually yields adverse motivation	Decision-making contributes relatively little motivation	Some contribution by decision-making to motivation to implement	Substantial contribution by decision-making processes to motivation to implement
6. Character of goal setting or ordering				
Manner in which usually done	Orders issued	Orders issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist	Goals are set or orders issued after discussion with subordinate(s) of problems and planned action	Except in emergencies, goals are usually established by means of group participation

APPENDIX B (cont.)

Organizational variable				
Are there forces to accept, resist, or reject goals?	Goals are overtly accepted but are covertly resisted strongly	Goals are overtly accepted but often covertly resisted to at least a moderate degree	Goals are overtly accepted but at times with some covert resistance	Goals are fully accepted both overtly and covertly
7. Character of control processes				
Extent to which the review and control functions are concentrated	Highly concentrated in top management	Relatively highly concentrated, with some delegated control to middle and lower levels	Moderate downward delegation of review and control processes; lower as well as higher levels feel responsible	Quite widespread r sponsibility for r and control, with lower units at ti imposing more rigorous reviews a tighter controls t top management
Extent to which people's activities go against or support goals of formal organization	Such activities exist and do oppose goals of formal organization	Such activities usually are present and partially oppose goals of formal organization	Such activities may be present and may either partially support or partially resist goals of formal organization	Goals and activi are the same: h all activities support efforts t achieve goals of formal organizatio
Extent to which control information (e.g. costs, exam results, reports, etc.) are used for self-guidance or group problem solving by managers and colleagues; or used by superiors in a punishing and policing manner	Used for policing and punishment	Used for policing coupled with rewards and punishments; used somewhat for guidance in accord with orders	Largely used for policing with emphasis usually on reward but with some punishment; used for guidance in accord with orders; some also used for self-guidance	Used for self-guidance and for co-ordinated probl solving and guida not used as punish ment

. . . . .

APPENDIX C

MacGREGOR'S TEAM DEVELOPMENT SCALE

(For each question circle one number between 1 - 7)

1. Degree of mutual trust:

High suspicion						High trust
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Communications:

Guarded, cautious						Open, authentic
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Degree of mutual support:

Every man for himself						Genuine concern for each other
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. Team objectives:

Not understood						Clearly understood
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Handling conflicts within team:

Through denial, avoidance, suppression or compromise						Acceptance and 'working through' of conflicts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Utilisation of member resources:

Competencies used by team						Competencies not used
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Control methods:

Control is imposed						Control from within
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Organisational environment:

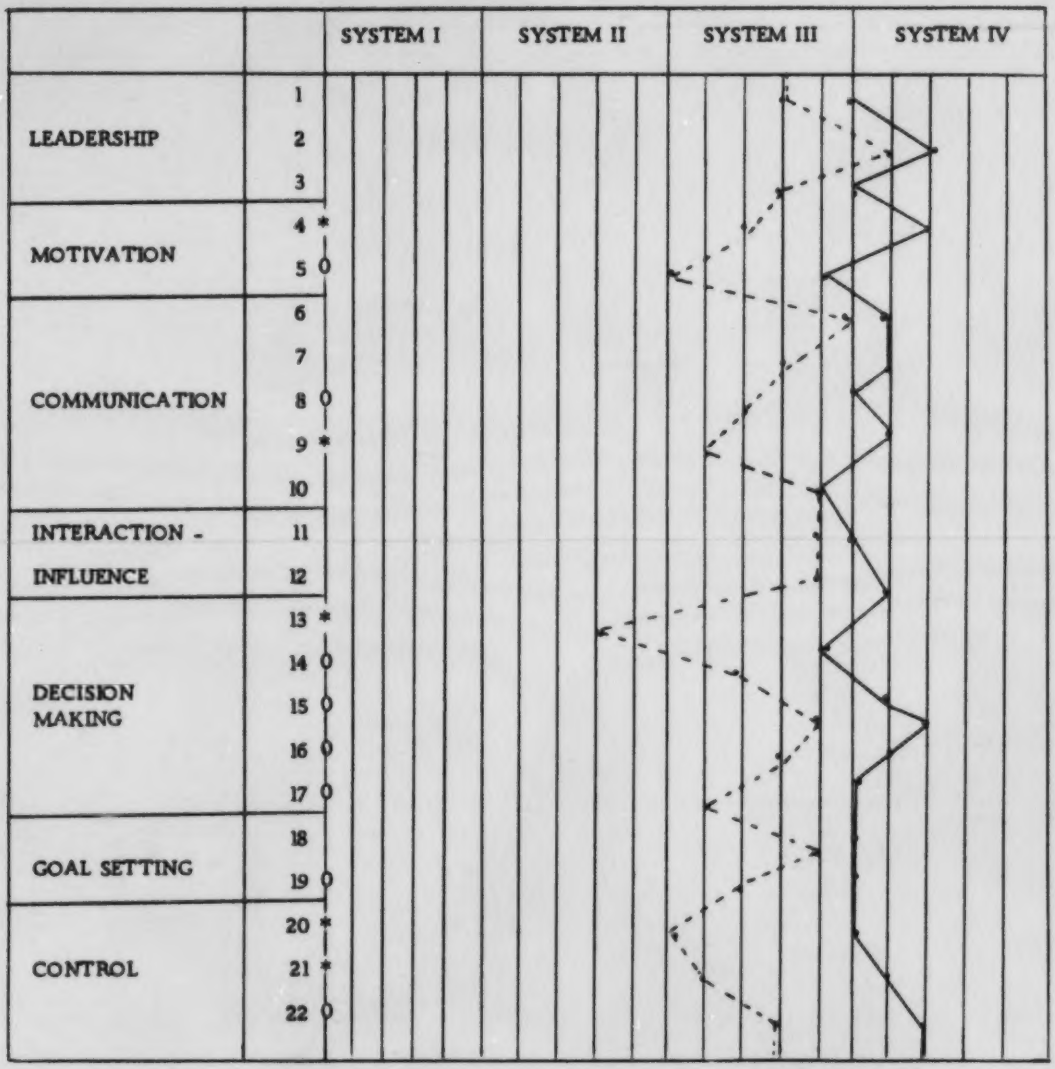
Restrictive, pressure for conformity						Free, supportive, respect for differences
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D1

NORTH NOTTINGHAMSHIRE COLLEGE OF FE

I. COMPARISON OF PROFILE OF EXISTING ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

SENIOR STAFF



* P<0.01

0 0.05> P>0.01

- - - - - - organisation at December 1972

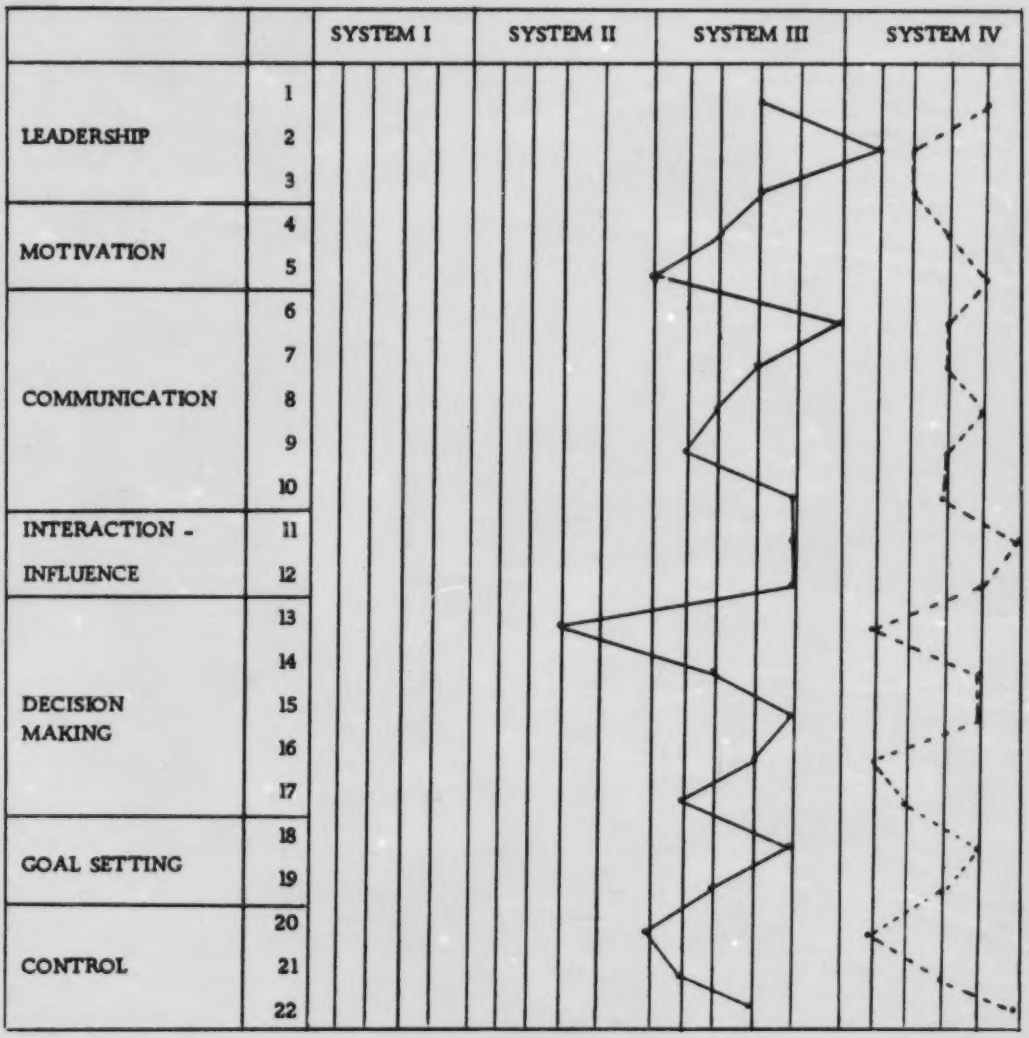
———— organisation at June 1973

APPENDIX D2

NORTH NOTTINGHAMSHIRE COLLEGE OF FE

II. PROFILE OF ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

SENIOR STAFF



——————— organisation at December 1972

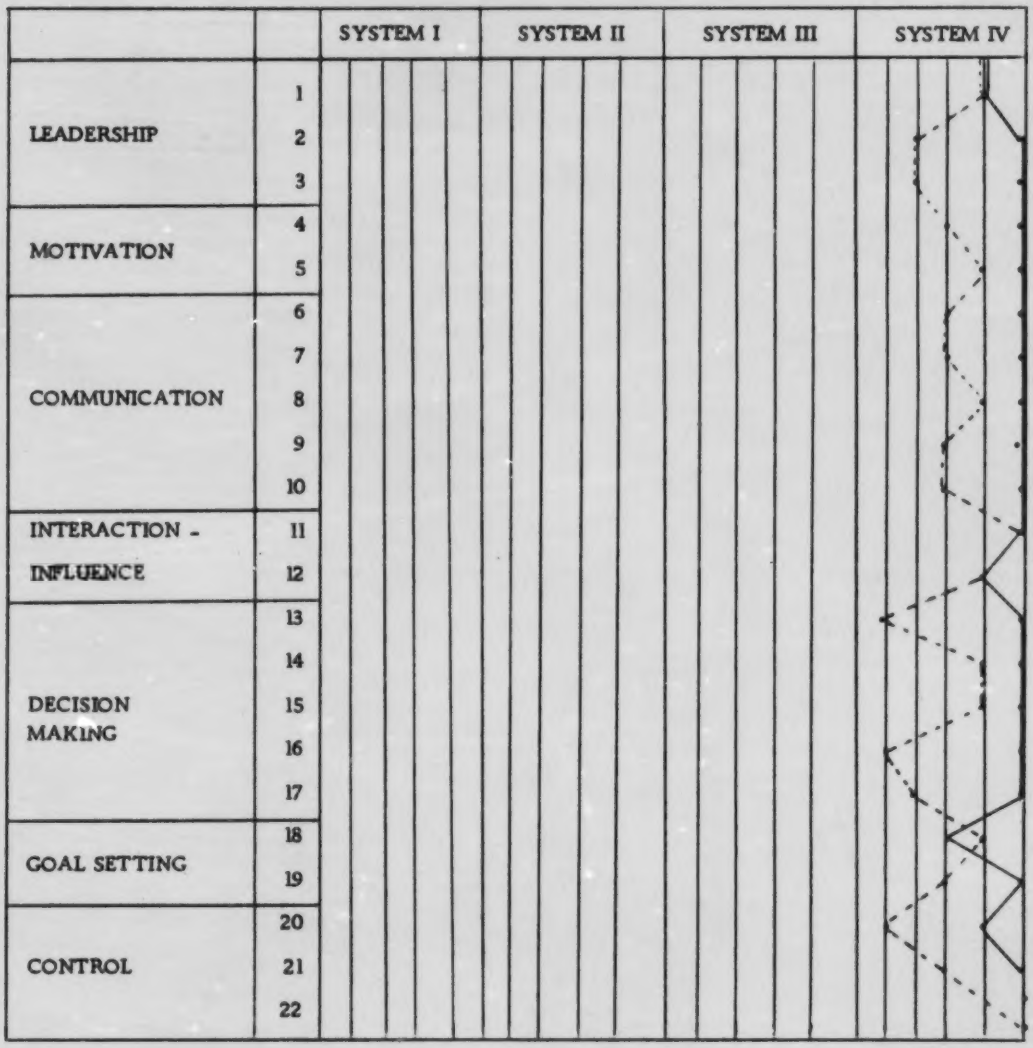
- - - - - - - - - organisation as required at December 1973

APPENDIX D3

NORTH NOTTINGHAMSHIRE COLLEGE OF FE

III. COMPARISON OF PROFILES OF REQUIRED ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

SENIOR STAFF



- - - - - - - - organisation as required at December 1972

———————— organisation as required at June 1973

APPENDIX E

NORTH NOTTINGHAMSHIRE COLLEGE OF FE

COMPARISON OF TEAM DEVELOPMENT SCORE

SENIOR STAFF

$\bar{X}_B$ Average as at 7th May 1973

$\bar{X}_N$ Average as at 9th January 1976

Team Development Scale

(For each question circle one number between 1-7)

How do you rate this group in respect to:

1. Degree of mutual trust:

$0.05 > P > 0.01$

High suspicion — 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — $\bar{X}_B$ 4.3 — 5 — $\bar{X}_N$ 5.5 — 6 — High trust 7

2. Communications:

$P < 0.01$

Guarded, cautious — 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — $\bar{X}_B$ 4.2 — 5 — $\bar{X}_N$ 5.7 — 6 — Open, authentic 7

3. Degree of mutual support:

$P < 0.01$

Every man for himself — 1 — 2 — 3 — $\bar{X}_B$ 3.7 — 4 — 5 — $\bar{X}_N$ 5.4 — 6 — Genuine concern for each other 7

4. Team objectives:

$P < 0.01$

Not understood — 1 — 2 — 3 — $\bar{X}_B$ 3.6 — 4 — 5 — $\bar{X}_N$ 5.1 — 6 — Clearly understood 7

5. Handling conflicts within team:

$P < 0.01$

Through denial, avoidance, suppression or compromise — 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — $\bar{X}_B$ 4.1 — 5 — $\bar{X}_N$ 5.8 — 6 — Acceptance and 'working through' of conflicts 7

6. Utilisation of member resources:

$P > 0.1$

Competencies used by team — 1 — 2 — $\bar{X}_N$ 2.7 — 3 — $\bar{X}_B$ 3.8 — 4 — 5 — 6 — Competencies not used 7

7. Control methods:

$P < 0.01$

Control is imposed — 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — $\bar{X}_B$ 4.6 — 5 — $\bar{X}_N$ 5.9 — 6 — Control from within 7

8. Organisational environment:

$P < 0.01$

Restrictive, pressure for conformity — 1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — $\bar{X}_B$ 4.7 — 5 — 6 — $\bar{X}_N$ 6.1 — Free, supportive, respect for differences 7

Further Reading

Although we can recommend few books specifically on Team Training, you are advised to read the following two books which provide the background thinking and some techniques behind the concept of Team Development.

1. Likert, R. New Patterns of Management. McGraw-Hill, 1961.

2. McGregor, D. The Human Side of Enterprise. McGraw-Hill, 1960.

The best description of System 4 is in

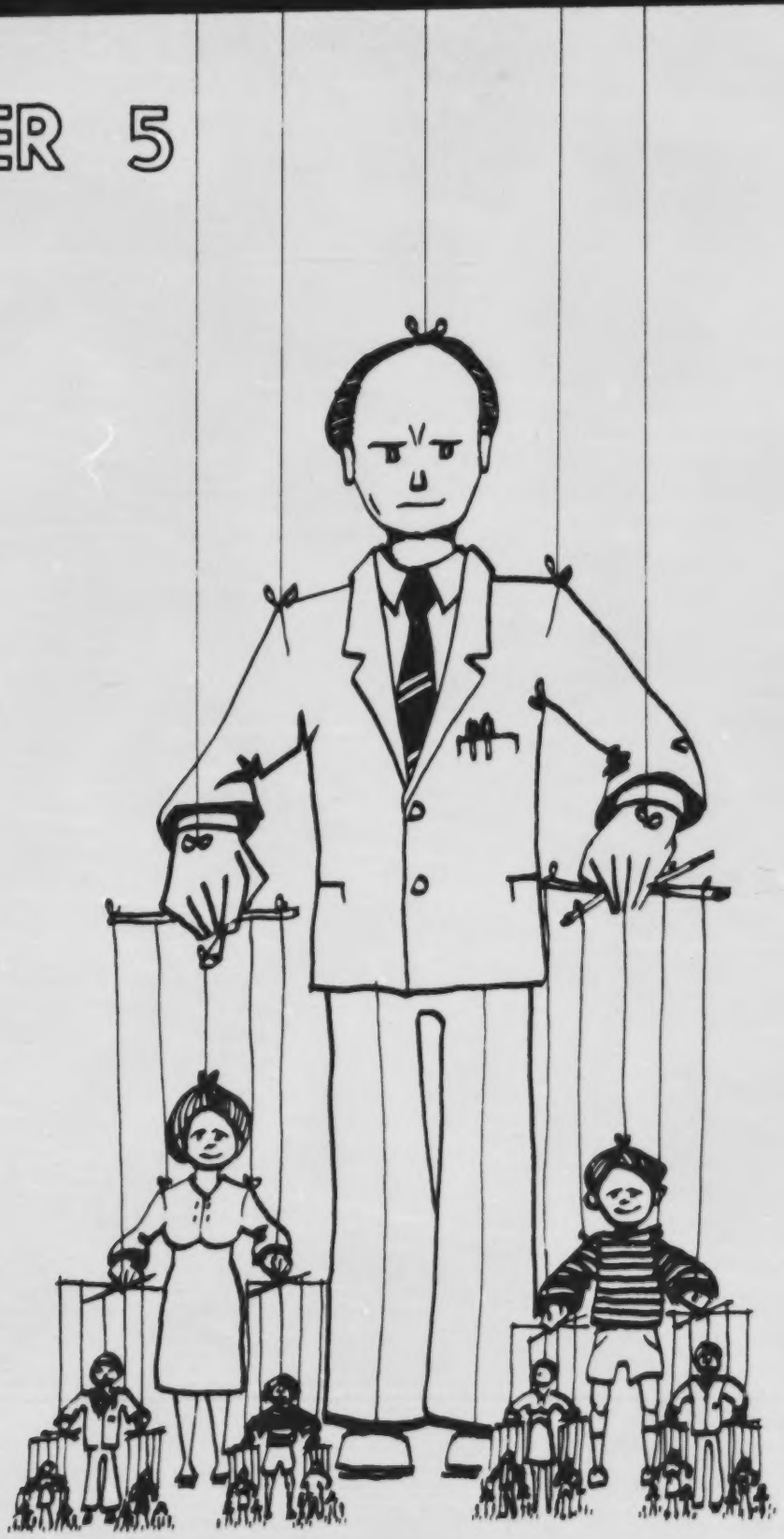
3. Likert, R. and Likert, J.G. New Ways of Managing Conflict. McGraw-Hill, 1976.

The most useful reading on Team Building is in:

4. Berger, M.L. and P.J. (ed.) Group Training Techniques. Gower Press, 1972.

   Part Two of this book consists of chapters on building an effective work team, on role negotiation, and on team training experiences at IBM (UK) Limited.

PAPER 5



TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

PAPER NO. 5

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

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TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

1. Introduction

1.1 How can we as individuals try to make sense of the various relations or transactions we have with other people.

Most of us feel that we want to improve our skill in relating to other people, and have many moments of feeling rather inadequate in a particular transaction.

1.2 We might, for example, as Head of Department be approached by a member of staff who wants to talk over some kind of problem, or we might get involved in a major row with the Principal. Outside our work life, we are likely to experience many more moments of clumsiness or inadequacy in transactions - with our adolescent daughters, our spouses, our in-laws, our neighbours, our friends.

1.3 One of the difficulties of analysing and so improving our everyday behaviour with other people, is that the theories and writings of psychologists and social behaviourists have been for the layman very difficult to follow, both because of the language used and the complexity of the conceptual ideas. Read for example some Freudian or Gestalt theory.

1.4 The beauty of Transactional Analysis (or TA as we will now call it) is that its language is very simple, even colloquial - and ironically that in itself makes people very suspicious of it. We have been conditioned to expect to use long words to describe the way we relate to ourselves and other people. Not only is TA language simple, but its concepts are based on common sense, everyday observation of what we see and what we feel. There is very little underlying theory, such as there is in Freudian psychology. The basic concepts of TA can be taught to anybody of average understanding in a few hours. It is true that, like all simple effective tools, TA concepts can be used to dig deeper and deeper into human behaviour, but a useful level of understanding which can be put to practical use is available straight away.

1.5 To present TA in a short paper, inevitably means that some areas are not developed fully, so this by no means is meant as an adequate description of TA. It is an introduction which leads either to further reading or attendance at a TA workshop. A guided reading programme is therefore added at the end of the paper.

We aim here to cover briefly the main areas of TA theory.

2. The Underlying Assumption

2.1 TA assumes that all the events and feelings that we have ever experienced are stored within us, as though on video-tape, and can be replayed. We can re-experience the events and, more importantly, we can re-experience the feelings of all our past years. Of particular significance, because they were so crowded with new feelings and experience, are the tapes from our childhood. We can relive the feelings we had of a child's joy or frustration, or our childhood perceptions of parental behaviour and commands. These feelings from our own childhood state and from our parents as experienced by us as children we carry around within us, and they are frequently reactivated.

3. Ego States

3.1 We can observe in people three quite distinct types of behaviour which seem to come from different sources within ourselves. These three states are collectively known as Ego states, and have been given the names, Parent Ego State, Adult Ego State and Child Ego State. For convenience they are normally referred to as the Parent, the Adult and the Child and to distinguish from the common usage of the same words we will always print them in capitalised form.

3.2 It is very important to understand that these ego states are not abstract concepts (such as Freud's ego, super ego and id) but actual states which can be observed. They can never be hypothesised, but must always be demonstrably present. Of course, one's vision might be defective, so the behaviour might be misinterpreted, but this does not alter the fact that the behaviour is there.

3.3 How can we describe the three ego states?

The PARENT. This state contains the attitudes, feelings and behaviours incorporated from external sources, primarily parents. In outward behaviour, it shows in critical or nurturing behaviour. It is concerned with succouring, helping, criticising, censuring, laying down rules, punishing - in fact, all the behaviours we commonly associate with being a parent.

3.4 The ADULT. This state has nothing to do with a person's age. It contains those behaviours concerned with collecting and processing facts and information, trying to get into touch with objective reality, with organising, computing, analysing, testing probability. It is sometimes referred to as the computer in the personality and operates dispassionately and without emotion. It is important to avoid any value judgements in using these definitions of ego states. The Adult is not <u>better</u> than the Child or Parent, only different.

3.5 The CHILD. This state contains all the impulses that come naturally to an infant, such as joy, trust, love. It also contains the recordings of his early experiences, how he responded to them, and the 'positions' he took about himself and others. These kinds of recorded feelings from childhood (not the spontaneous feelings natural to childhood) are referred to as Archaic messages or tapes. Unlike the Adult state, the Child state is full of strong emotion.

3.6 So when you are acting, thinking, feeling, as you observed your parents to do, you are in your Parent.

When you are dealing with current reality, gathering facts and computing objectively, you are in your Adult.

When you are feeling and acting as you did when you were a child, you are in your Child.

3.7 How do we tell which state someone is in?

With a little practice, and a full understanding of the above definitions, it is not difficult to place most statements into one of the three states. To take an example: you are a Head of Department, your Senior Lecturer has been for an interview for a promotion. You meet him coming back from it looking very downcast. He says:

"Well, that's one I really messed up. What a shambles. I feel mad with myself."

This is a Child statement from a position of disappointment and frustration - very similar to the feelings we had as children in failing to come up to expectations or achieve well when we really wanted to. You have the choice of responding from your Adult, Parent or Child.

Your Parent might say, with your voice full of concern and sympathy:

"Never mind, come into my office and tell me all about it

or if you were very cruel:

"Well you deserved it. You are not much good anyway."

Your Adult might say, in a controlled voice:

"Would you like me to help you analyse what went wrong so you can do better next time?"

A response from your Child might be:

"To hell with it - let's go and get drunk together."

It is a matter of judgement and sensitivity, of course, as to which ego state you choose to come from, but it is useful if you are clear as to the alternatives. You can get further practice at identifying responses from the three states in Appendix A.

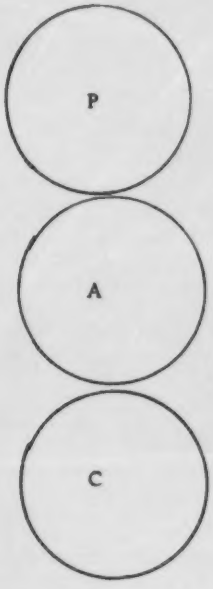
3.8 It is not simply the meaning of the words that identify the state but also the way they are said, the person's posture and movement, and his exact vocabulary.

Imagine three people: One is standing very erect wagging his finger at a young child and his voice is hard and stern. Another is standing in front of a machine pointing out to a workman he has with him the various operating devices. His posture is alert, his movements active and decisive, his voice clear and unemotional. A third is lying in the sun, absolutely relaxed, a smile of pleasure on his face, his voice drawling as he talks to his companion. We don't need to know what was said to be able to identify the three states of Parent, Adult and Child.

3.9 The following is a list of signs which help with this identification:

	PARENT	ADULT	CHILD
Sample Words and Phrases	Should, don't ought, always, never, if I were you, be good, there there, because I said so.	How, when, who, why alternative, probability, test it, have you tried this, Yes, No.	Can't, won't, want, mine, I'm scared, it's your fault, nobody loves me, do it for me, look at me.
Gestures and Postures	Pointing finger, pat on the back, pounding table, tapping feet impatiently, shaking head, holding someone.	Straight posture, level eye contact, pointing something out with arm or finger.	Slumped, dejected, batting eyelashes, curling up nail biting.
Tone of Voice	Sneering, condescending, encouraging, sympathetic.	Calm, inquiring, confident, clear.	Giggling, whining, swearing, sulky, teasing, playful.
Facial Gestures	Scowl, furrowed brow, set jaw, smile, loving, hostile, disapproving.	Thoughtful, watchful, quizzical, alert eyes.	Tearful, pouting, downcast eyes, joyful, tilted head, wide-eyed, helpless.

3.10 We normally represent these ego states in the following way:



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3.11 You will have noticed that many of the behaviours under each of the ego states are very much opposites - for example, under the Child both joy and temper tantrums or under the Parent both helping and criticising. We need to look at each state in a little more detail to see why this is so.

3.12 The Parent state has three parts to it each with a constructive and destructive side (what we will later describe as OK and not OK).

Constructive (OK)	Destructive (Not OK)
The Nurturing Parent	The Rescuing Parent
The Standard Setting Parent	The Prejudice Enforcing Parent
The Controlling Parent	The Persecuting Parent

If we incorporated in our childhood from the impact of parental behaviour on us, good feelings of nurturing, controlling and standard setting, then this will normally be reflected in our Parental state. But we will also have incorporated from parent figures various negative feelings which come out in persecution, arbitrary and unreasonable rule making, and rescuing (that is, gestures of support which have no real substance to them but make the Parent feel he has done his duty). It must be emphasised again that our Parental behaviour when we are adults does not have to be directed towards children: it can be directed towards other adults.

3.13 The Adult state, apart from its computer function of observing, collating data, thinking, weighing probabilities, also tests Parent's beliefs and attitudes and Child feelings for their appropriateness to the current here and now situation. The Adult when it is functioning is always keeping in touch with and assessing data from the Parent and Child. Unfortunately the Child or Parent often blots out the Adult.

The Child state has three parts to it:

3.14 The Free Child (Sometimes called the Natural Child) is that part which is the very young, impulsive, untrained, expressive infant still inside each of us. It is the self-centred, pleasure-loving baby which responds with cosy affection when its needs are met, and angry rebellion when they are not.

It is affectionate, impulsive, sensuous, uncensored and curious but also fearful, self-indulgent, rebellious and aggressive. Many adults repress their Free Child as much as they can, and conversely exaggerate the Parent.

3.15 The Adaptive Child shows a modification of the Free Child's inclination in the light of various experiences and particularly of demands from various authority figures such as parents. The child learns to be co-operative, to share, to be obedient, to apologise, to withdraw. The Free Child says, "I love" and "I feel": the Adaptive Child says, "I'm sorry" "Yes, I will".

3.16 The third state is oddly known as the Little Professor. This is the unschooled wisdom of the child. It is that part of the Child state that is intuitive, manipulative, operating on hunches, the part that knows when to cry, when to look pathetic, when to be winsome, in order to get what he wants.

4. How can we use Ego States

4.1 It is possible to develop with practice and training the ability to switch ego states at will. The developed mature person can move from a caring parent to a rational adult to a fun child without difficulty. Often people are not able to do this. More likely they are in trouble because they have a favourite ego state: they consistently use one or two and consistently repress one or two.

4.2 Some people with rigid boundaries continually criticise others, advise others or take care of others - the Constant Parents.

Some people continually analyse, live only with facts, distrust feelings - the Constant Adults.

Some people operate with strong feelings all the time - consumed with anger or aggression or guilt, constantly clowning, always seeking fun or looking for kicks, or feeling helpless, dependent, or impotent - the Constant Child.

4.3 It is a useful first step towards developing the ability to switch ego states to best advantage, to find out what ego states we commonly operate in and which are problems for us.

5. Ego States and the Transaction

5.1 A transaction is a verbal exchange between two people (we will leave aside non-verbal transactions in this paper). One person speaks and this stimulates a response from the person he is with. In a transaction, "I do something to you, and you do something back".

In such transactions each person speaks from one of their three ego states, and it is the interplay of these ego states with which transactional analysis is concerned.

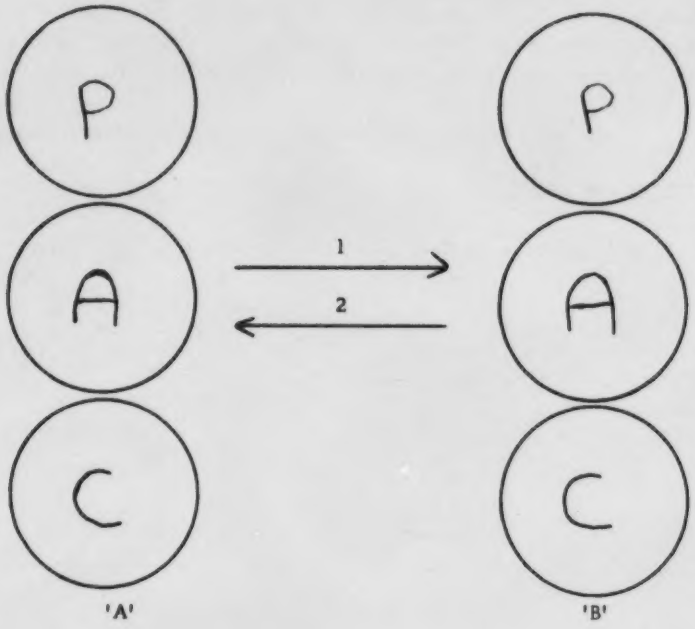
5.2 Transactions can be complementary and enable the conversation to continue, or they can be crossed and bring the conversation to an end or at least cause it to change its nature.

To illustrate this let us consider the following simple transaction:

A. "What is the time?"

B. "Half past ten."

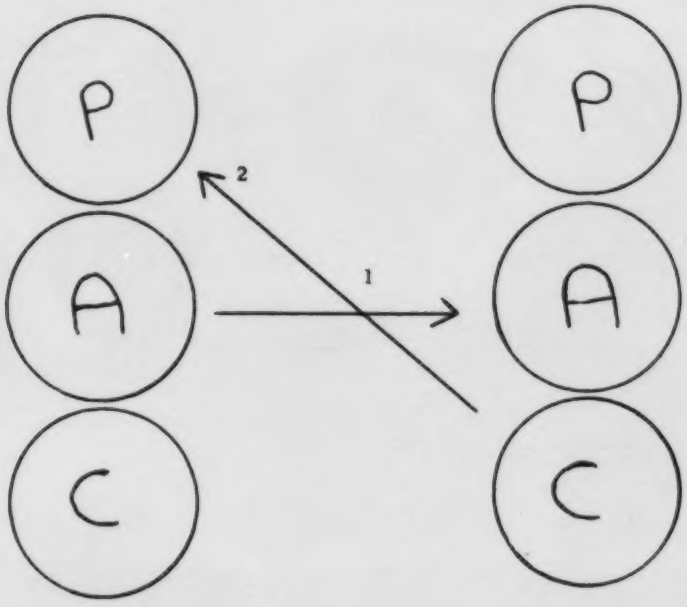
Here A spoke from his Adult to B's Adult. This called for and received a reply from B's Adult to A's Adult. It was thus complementary and diagrammatically would look like this:



Suppose, however, that 'B' had replied instead:

B. "Time you left me alone."

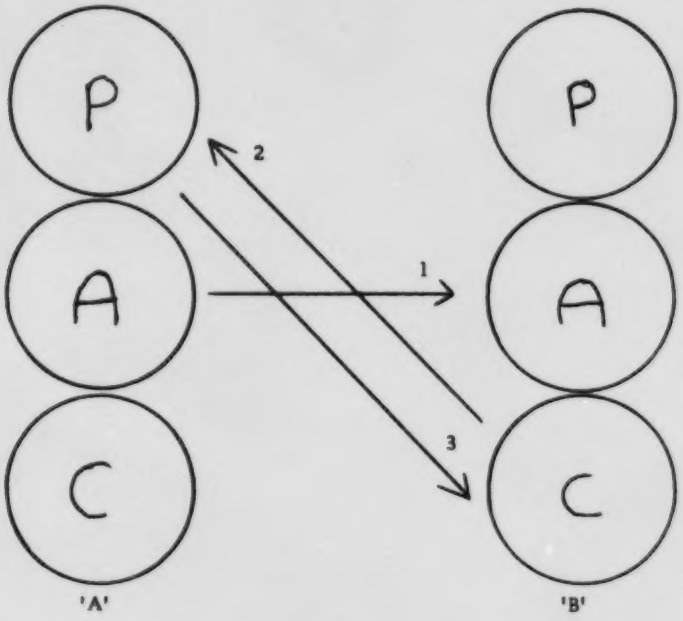
He would have been replying from his Child to 'A's' Parent, so we would have a crossed transaction like this:



'A' can now break off the conversation, or carry on a crossed and highly unrewarding conversation by staying in his Adult (he cannot keep this up for long), or he can move into a complementary transaction by replying from his Parent to B's Child like this:

A. "Don't you talk to me like that - remember I'm your Boss."

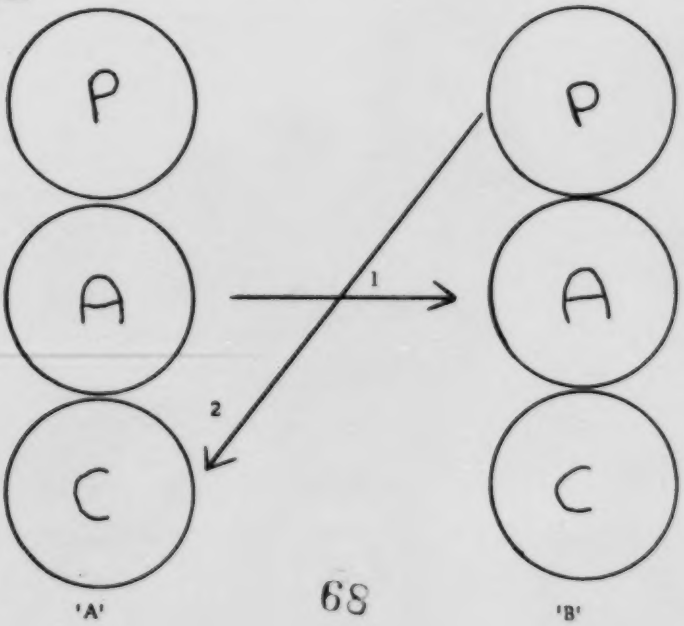
Now the diagram looks like this:



A third alternative to 'A's first question might have been:

B. "Time you got down to work."

Here he would have responded from his Parent to A's Child so we get another crossed transaction:



If 'A' now replied by saying:

"I'm sorry."

he has given a Child to Parent response which at least has got the transaction into a complementary one even though it has failed to follow the course he originally expected.

5.3 We could give many more examples but you are referred to the reading list at the end. Most books on TA give much space to this area.

An example of the use to which this can be put in industry is in training schemes for counter staff in some airline companies as described in Appendix B.

6. Stroking

6.1 All people from the moment they are born need the stimulation of stroking. Without it babies will actually die, and adults will shrivel up as personalities and occupy our mental hospitals. A stroke is a stimulation one person gives to another, and an exchange of strokes is one of the most important activities people engage in. Strokes are any act of recognition one person gives another. For babies and young children most strokes will be actual physical touching: with adults physical strokes are largely replaced by symbolic strokes such as praise or words of appreciation. Strokes can be either positive or negative - a kiss or a cuff. If the child cannot receive positive strokes from his friends or parents he will look for negative ones rather than get none at all. A blow is better than being totally ignored.

6.2 But it is the giving and receiving of positive strokes that develop emotionally healthy people with a feeling of confidence in themselves, trust of others and a general feeling of being OK.

The kind of positive strokes that give this OK feeling, of everything being well with the world, must spread across the three ego states.

I require my Child to be stroked by being hugged.

I require my Adult to be stroked by being congratulated on my work.

I require my Parent to be stroked by being thanked for caring for someone.

I need to stroke other people's Child.

I need to stroke other people's Adult.

I need to stroke other people's Parent.

And all these strokes should be positive.

6.3 However, my stroke pattern of giving and receiving will be very much conditioned by what kind of strokes I received as a baby and child. If I became used to negative strokes, to being smacked, criticised, shouted at, and generally put down, I will probably go through life looking for and giving negative strokes from and to other people. If I received positive strokes of praise, love, rewards, but only conditional upon performing well or conforming to the rules then I will tend to give and look for strokes based on performance or acceptable behaviour.

6.4 Strokes are very potent. One of the most powerful ways to use TA to change your own life is to look at your own stroke pattern and then change it by giving more positive unconditional strokes at work and outside work. The effect on colleagues, employees, wives, friends will always be beneficial to them and you.

7. Life Positions

7.1 The experiences of the baby and child during his first few years, particularly the strokes or lack of strokes, and the prescriptions and proscriptions he receives from parents, teachers and other adults, lead him to take basic positions about himself. These decisions become generalised into the basic OK and not OK psychological positions. There are four of these positions:

The OK Corral

I'M OK YOU'RE NOT OK	I'M OK YOU'RE OK
I'M NOT OK YOU'RE NOT OK	I'M NOT OK YOU'RE OK

The child who comes to accept his own worth and that of other people, who can trust other people, who can trust other people and feel confidence in himself, is in an I'm OK You're OK position. Very few people seem to be able to operate in this position, but it is the most constructive, creative and healthy, and enables openness and intimacy to exist between people.

7.2 For most of us our early experience were of being put down, criticised, made to feel a fool, made to feel powerless or inadequate by parents, teachers, big brothers, etc. and we incorporated enough feelings about our own various inadequacies to carry through these feelings into our adult life and work from the position I'm not OK You're OK. If we think about our nervousness before making a speech or facing an argument with our boss, or our embarrassment when our colleague behaves strangely in public, or our apprehension when waiting for comments on our performance, we see the not OK feelings of our Child within us. We can probably guess that about three-quarters of all people are generally in this position.

7.3 A few people have such a brutalised experience, physically or psychologically in their childhood, that for their own survival they switch positions to I'm OK You're not OK, and as they take this into adulthood they are likely to display signs of meglomania, dictatorial or persecuting behaviour. At its strongest level it produced Hitler; at a more moderate level Principals or parents who are forever getting angry with and putting down their subordinates or children. The I'm not OK You're not OK position is one of black despair in which few people can be for very long without damaging their personality. It is the world of the depressives and suicides.

Although we can move temporarily into another position, we are most of the time bound by the one which we were led to accept early in our life. Skilled therapy can certainly move people into more healthy positions, however, and TA therapists have had considerable successes in this.

8. Life Scripts

8.1 The idea behind life scripts is probably the most difficult to grasp and accept, and you are referred to the reading list to follow up in detail. Briefly, however, a script is the blue print by which we live our lives. It is formed by all the messages that are mediated to the growing person from birth into adolescence and which are incorporated from the ego states of the mother, father, and other significant adults. Many of these messages are simple proscriptions or prescriptions that come out of the inherited folkways of our ancestors, but many more contain messages that help define to the growing child what he is, what he is to become, what kind of chronicle of events he can expect to live through. Some of these will be sensible messages such as:

"Work hard" "Help others"

but there may be underlying messages such as:

"Don't get too big for your boots" which probably meant "Don't do better than me".

Some will be clearly defining messages:

"You are stupid" "You are clumsy" "You're no oil painting but you're very kind"
"Billy is the really bright one - Pat spends too much time dreaming"

8.2 In fact, the extent to which parents lay down the future behaviour, feelings, and activities of the children by thousands of these messages over the years is seldom appreciated, but it is this which forms Life Scripts, which their children will live out in later life. Some of these scripts are very destructive and are programming a child into a life of failure. The underlying message he was getting as a child was "Drop dead" or "Get lost" or "Be stupid" or "Fail" and he spends his life proving his parents were right.

9. Rackets

9.1 Early in our life we experienced fairly commonly periods when for various reasons we felt very not OK. The going got tough in the family, and we felt helpless and powerless surrounded by powerful and hostile grown-ups. At these times we retreated into certain not OK feelings to deal with situation as we saw it, and though we experienced many different kinds of feelings, one or two gradually became our habitual feelings for handling these bad times. Very often we simply copied those of the grown-ups round us. The kind of feelings we are talking about are:

Anger	Frustration	Stupidity
Guilt	Inadequacy	Self-Righteousness
Fear	Loneliness	Pain
Rejection	Depression	Etc.

We all experienced all of these at sometime, but one of them became our favourite bad feeling. Which of them is yours?

9.2 This favourite bad feeling is called your Racket, and when you are feeling not OK, you will be looking for transactions, and strokes that will get you into that feeling. You look for confirmation that justifies you in feeling angry, inadequate, guilty etc. This way in which we collect bad feeling stamps is sometimes called collecting trading stamps - Anger stamps, Purity stamps, Guilty stamps - which we can cash in every so often for a big bumper bad feeling.

9.3 We must, however, distinguish between rackety feelings and genuine responses to situations. There are times when it may be very appropriate to feel angry, guilty, rejected etc. The racket can be recognised because it is repetitive, inappropriate to the situation, and is manipulating the situation and people in it for the benefit of creating the bad feeling.

10. Games

10.1 It was Eric Berne's analysis of psychological games in his best-seller 'Games People Play' that first brought TA to the attention of the public. This was unfortunate in a way because a great deal of superficial interest in games developed, without much serious thought as to what lay behind them, nor equivalent interest in the other areas of TA.

10.2 Games are transactions between people which are always destructive at least to one of the players, and which leave feelings of not being OK. Why then do people engage in them? Because of their script and their past experience of strokes which leads them to seek the kind of situation where they are justified in indulging in their favourite rackets. The various game transactions tend to follow certain well-established paths and Berne's patients gave names to these, such as:

Wooden Leg
Rapo
Uproar
Lunch Bag
Blemish
Ain't it Awful
I'm Only Trying to Help

While we can get a certain amount of amusement learning to spot games, it must be remembered that it is a serious business - of leaving people feeling not OK.

10.3 Very many of the games fall under two main types, NIGYSOB and Kick Me. NIGYSOB (Now I've Got You, Son of a Bitch) players want to express the anger or hostility that is within them and are looking for justification to vent this anger or hostility on someone legitimately. So they look to set up games in which they can do this, and it is not too difficult if they are a boss. A common device is to set a subordinate schedules for producing work which both know cannot be met, and then getting angry when the expected happens. But there are hundreds of minor ways in which a NIGYSOB player can lure his victim into a transaction and produce the put-down. A variation of it is Blemish, when a boss always looks for a point of criticism, however trivial, in the work that is done for him, however good it is.

10.4 The Kick Me player is the man who goes around always getting into trouble and apparently inviting it. He feels life has always been against him, he feels not OK and looks for confirmation of his feelings by getting into Kick Me games. This is not difficult if he can find people to co-operate. When he is in difficulties the last thing he wants is people to sympathise with him and help him. If there is danger that they might do this, the player will work hard to push them beyond the limits of their patience, and then sit back and wait for the kicks. A common device of a Kick Me player is to agree to take on much more than he can possibly cope with and then mess it up.

10.5 It is obvious that in working out our scripts, looking for our strokes, positive and negative and playing our favourite games, we need a supporting cast of players and most people do gather round them the kind of people who will satisfy them in these behaviours. You are referred to the reading list at the end of this paper. Most of the books give a number of examples of games.

11. Practical Applications of TA in the College

11.1 We can apply TA to our working life in the college. Most obviously we can examine our own typical work transactions and see if they satisfy us as being flexible and appropriate to the situations we are in. Are we too often operating from our Parent or our Adult? We can examine our stroke pattern and see if we give as many strokes as we think we do, and whether our strokes are appropriate and freely given, or conditional in some way. Are we set in certain stroke patterns, where we always stroke the Child of our secretary and the Adult of our teaching staff. The rethinking of our stroke pattern is probably the most powerful single activity for change that we can undertake. Likewise we need to look at how we receive strokes - do we accept them or reject them. What difference will it make to our relationship with the givers if we start accepting strokes we have previously rejected.

With knowledge of our rackets what kinds of games are we playing with those in charge of us and those we are resposible for. Are we initiating games or merely being hooked into them by those around us? How are we going to break out of our games?

11.2 With practice we can begin to apply TA to our interactions with other people, developing more flexibility and social control and reducing the amount of manipulation and not OKness.

If we look at our organisations as a whole, we can describe our college, department or section in TA terms.

> Is it very Parental - if so does this come out in nurturing, rule-setting or controlling.
>
> Does our organisation cope with the need to express the Free Child - is it sometimes a Fun organisation.
>
> Is our organisation strokey or non-strokey. If it does seem to encourage a lot of strokes, are they positive or negative, conditional or unconditional.
>
> Is our organisation in the position of I'm OK - You're OK. If not, what?

Whatever the situation, the important point is that we as individuals have the power to begin to change.

12. Conclusion

12.1 This is a very brief survey of TA theory. A number of firms have found it a very useful way of improving the way people work and relate to each other, and claim improvements in efficiency as well as the happiness of their employees. Many more individuals have found in TA a way of making sense of their lives, and have been able to make changes which have brought them towards or into the state of I'm OK You're OK. It is a relatively simple system to understand in outline, though the working out of its implications for a particular individual may take many years of increasingly deep insights. There follows a bibliography of guided reading for those who wish now to pursue TA further.

Further Reading

It is important that the first book you read does give a comprehensive explanation of TA. The book that does this best is:

1. James, M. and Jongeward, D.

Born to Win: Transactional Analysis with Gestalt Experiments

Published by Addison - Wesley.

This book contains many exercises the reader might not wish to bother with, but the text itself forms a very clear introduction to TA. Unlike most books on the subject, this one starts from Life Script Analysis rather than concludes with it.

The same authors have published a very useful companion book:

2. James, M. and Jongeward, D.

Winning with People: Group Exercises in Transactional Analysis

Published by Addison - Wesley.

The text of this is useful as a simple introduction, but the value of this book is in its exercises, intended to be done in groups but easily adapted to individual use.

To supplement one of these two texts, you might read the first six chapters of:

3. Harris, T.A.

I'm OK - You're OK

Published by Pan.

This is one of the best sellers, but to English eyes at least, its style may be off-putting. As the title suggests, this book concentrates particularly on Life Positions.

With the basic theory of TA digested, it is worth now looking at one of the very best books written on the subject:

4. Steiner, C.

Games Alcoholics Play: The Analysis of Life Scripts.

Published by Grove.

This is short, well-written and very penetrating on the most difficult of TA concepts, that of Life Scripts. It is essential reading, once the preliminary understanding of basic TA theory has been grasped.

There are a number of books that you might now read depending upon your interest:

The application of TA to organisations is the subject of two books. The first is a fairly comprehensive (and expensive) book, but of high quality.

5. Jongeward, D. et. al.

Everybody Wins: Transactional Analysis Applied to Organisations

Published by Addison-Wesley.

This contains in some detail examples of the application of TA in industrial and commercial firms. The contributions vary in interest and quality, but this is the most comprehensive attempt to relate TA to organisational life.

An alternative to this is:

6. Meininger, I.

Success Through Transactional Analysis

Published in Signet Paperback.

English readers may find the approach brash and the style unpleasant. Examples are taken from American organisational life which is very different to English. But it has some useful points to make, and is inexpensive.

If you wish to read more on Life Scripts it is worth using:

7. Berne, E.

What Do You Say After You Say Hello?

Published in Corgi Paperback.

Berne was the originator of TA and a man of very great insight but his books are in many ways difficult to use. They are not good introductory texts, and often read more as a collection of various thoughts and short pieces of analysis rather than a continuous unfolding exposition. His style also varies from the simple and colloquial to the technical or obscure. So he is best read late in the day when his insights can be appreciated and fitted in to an existing framework of knowledge. This is true of his best-seller which can be read by those interested in Games, but preferably after reading the books at the beginning of this list.

8. Berne, E.

Games People Play

Published by Penguin.

A useful way of becoming familiar with Berne's thought is through a recently published anthology of his writing.

9. Berne, E.

Beyond Games and Scripts

Published by Grove (Paperback).

10. Birnbaum, J.

How to Stop Hating and Start Loving

Published by Pan Books.

A popularisation of TA theory that is easy to read and with good examples in it. Its particular value is in its concentration on hostility and anger, the source of much not OK feeling.

11. Tanner, I.J.

Loneliness: the Fear of Love

Published by the Perennial Library - Harper & Rowe.

This is not such an easy book, though it is short. It assumes familiarity with TA language and thinking. It is very good however in its analysis of loneliness and the feelings of being unloved.

Transactional Analysis has generally been seen as a therapeutic or adjusting approach to people who are at odds with the world. A more political line, which relates TA to radical politics and to such politico-social movements as Women's Liberation, has been developed by a group of psychiatrists on the West Coast of USA under the general inspiration of Claude Steiner. Two collections of their work are:

12. Steiner, Claude. Ed.

Readings in Radical Psychiatry

Published by the Grove Press.

13. Wyckoff, Hogie. Ed.

Love, Therapy and Politics

Published by the Grove Press.

An excellent analysis of women's role in TA terms is:

14. Jongeward, D. and Scott, D.

Women as Winners

Published by Addison-Wesley.

It inevitably covers some of the same ground as (1) and (2).

15. Bennett, Dudley.

TA and the Manager

Published by Amacon. 1976.

This book does not add much to the previous ones and is written in a 'plain businessman's' style, but it is useful enough to read for its focus on the manager's job. It contains at the end a most useful section on self scoring scales for Parent, Adult and Child states.

There are now a considerable number of books on TA coming onto the English market. Many of them are not worth reading, but there will be some published of real worth which do not appear in this list. After becoming familiar with one or two of the main texts however, the reader will be able to make his own judgement of what is worthwhile and what is a rip-off.

If you have difficulty in purchasing these books, they are stocked at:

Compendium Bookshop, 240 Camden High Street, London

or Prometheus Bookshop, 134 Alcester Road, Birmingham

APPENDIX A

Examples of Ego-State Transactions

I Adult-Adult Transaction

In the following examples of transactions, we give first an Adult to Adult transaction, and then to make clear the difference we add a Parent and a Child response.

1. Head of Department to Section Leader

"Is that report ready yet?"

"Yes."

(Alternative Parent and Child Answers)

P: "What a foolish question. Of course it is."

C: "Stop bothering me all the time."

2. Lecturer to Section Head

"When is the Working Party meeting?"

"3.00 p.m. this afternoon."

P: "Same time as it always is. You ought to know that."

C: "Don't ask me. Nobody ever tells me anything."

3. Secretary to Vice-Principal

"Where is the minor projects file?"

"In the grey cabinet, top drawer."

P: "Where you last put it."

C: "In the paper basket, I hope."

II Child-Child Transactions

In the following examples we first give a Child to Child transaction. In each example we follow this with two other responses. Spot which one is the Parent Response and which one is the Adult Response.

1. Lecturer to Lecturer

"I hate taking that Welders' class - I really don't get on with them."

"Oh, I think they are rather fun."

Alternative Responses

"You ought to try your best to do so."

"What in particular do you find difficult?"

2. New Secretary to Head of Department

"I really do like working here for you."

"The pleasure is all mine."

Alternative Responses

"Is there anything you don't like?"

"We try to make everyone happy here."

3. Section Head to Technician

"Why am I always left to do everything on my own?"

(This could be Parent or Child depending on tone of voice, etc.)

"I don't know - why ask me?"

Alternative Responses

"If that is the case, why don't you discuss it with your Head of Department?"

"You grumble too much."

III Parent-Parent Transactions

In the following examples we give Parent to Parent transactions. Provide a suitable Adult and Child response to each example.

1. Two Heads of Department talking about the Principal

   "They say he drinks a lot."

   "I knew it was something like that."

   (Give Adult and Child Responses)

   A:

   C:

2. Two clerks in the General Office

   "You wouldn't believe it, but the Registrar's son got that lecturer's job here."

   "Same old story."

   A:

   C:

3. Head of Department to Vice-Principal

   "In the old days, you could rely on getting more points every year."

   "Those days are gone for ever."

   A:

   C:

APPENDIX B

The TACT Programme

One of the first applications of TA to commercial training was made in the USA. A programme was developed by American Airlines aiming to improve the way staff and customers related to each other. This they called 'TA in Customer Treatment' or TACT for short.

A modified programme was adopted by BEA (now part of British Airways) in 1973, when a TA training course was launched for Chief Stewards and Stewardesses. Other programmes have been developed by Aer Lingus and Lufthansa, and also by many other commercial bodies as varied as C & A Modes and the GPO. The BEA course consisted of lectures, individual projects and group discussions and concentrated on analysis of incidents in PAC terms.

Many of the incidents used were real and recent events produced by the class members. The following is an example:

> "Flight between Inverness and London."
>
> Whilst serving breakfast to an elderly lady, I remarked about how beautiful the view was. She replied that she had not dared to look out of the window as it was her first flight and she was frightened of looking down. I told her that there was no need to worry and that during the years I had been flying nothing had ever happened to me in any way. I told her the view was too good to miss and began describing the scene. She then looked out and remarked on the view and started to talk about her family whom she was flying out to Canada to visit. We talked for a while and I left her happily looking out of the window.

Class members have to categorise this transactional sequence, and in this case the argument was whether it starts as a Parent - Child or Adult - Child transaction.

Imaginary transactions are also used to show how alternative responses can be used. For example:

	The Scene	In the check-in area of an Airport.
	The Scenario	A passenger has arrived to book in and finds that the aircraft he expected to travel on is full. His travel agents have made an error.
1.	Customer:	"You've got to find me a seat on that plane. It's not my fault you people get your phone messages wrong." (Parent)
2.	Supervisor:	"I'm sorry sir, but we cannot be held responsible for the mistakes of your travel agent." (Adult)
3.	Customer:	"That's typical - you all blame each other when something's gone wrong, and to hell with the poor customer." (Parent)
4.	Supervisor:	"We will try to sort something out for you. I'm sure we can find a satisfactory solution." (Adult)

5.	Customer:	"The only way you can do that is by getting me on this plane like you promised." (Child)
6.	Supervisor:	"That's impossible. It's absolutely full. I can't turn anyone else off - you surely must be able to see that." (Parent)
7.	Customer:	"You've ruined my holiday, you have. I've saved up all year for this and now you've messed it up. I'll sue the lot of you." (Child)
8.	Supervisor:	"Do that if it will make you feel any better. I'm doing the best I can for you." (Parent - Child)
9.	Customer:	"Well, it's not good enough - I'm going to see someone with some authority." (Parent)

Alternative Script

(In this the supervisor avoids being hooked by the customer's Child, and stays firmly in his Adult)

Numbers 1 to 5 as above.

6.	Supervisor:	"I'm sorry. We can't do that because it is already full, but I will see what else we can do to help."
7.	Customer:	"It's no good. You've ruined my holiday. I've saved up all year and now you've messed it up. I'll sue the lot of you." (Child)
8.	Supervisor:	"I don't think it is as bad as that. I can book you on a plane 50 minutes later, and that will get you there in time to reach your hotel before the evening meal. I'll contact your travel agent's representative and arrange to have you met at the airport. Will that be alright for you?" (Adult)
9.	Customer:	"I suppose so." (Reluctant Adult)
10.	Supervisor:	"Good - then I'll arrange it at once." (Adult)

The technique being taught is firstly for staff to be able to analyse what is happening in PAC terms and then to find strategies for dealing with it, most commonly by staying in the Adult while customers operate in the Child or Parent. This creates a crossed transaction, which cannot be carried on indefinitely, and with skill and patience the member of staff should be able to move the customer into a complementary transaction.

For further description of the TACT programme see:-

Davies, G. and Boyle, J. "Transactional Analysis and Customer Relations" In Industrial and Commercial Training, Vol.6, No.2. February 1974.

Some of the material in the above section is drawn from that article.

TERMS USED IN TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

A Guide when Reading the Literature

A

ADAPTED CHILD — Second level structural analysis of Child Ego State. That part which modifies natural child responses in the light of experience of others.

ADULT EGO STATE — One of the three primary Ego states - the one concerned with computing and analysing.

ANTI SCRIPT — The inverse of a Script. The defiant opposite of what each script directive calls for.

B

BOUNDARY LESIONS — A sore point caused by childhood trauma which manifests itself in gross over-reaction to the reality of the stimulus.

BASH TRAP — Persistent losing behaviour without thought of alternative winning behaviours.

BERKELEY SUBJUNCTIVE — The use of subjunctives, conditionals and non-commital words to define a script that is programmed never to get anywhere.

C

COMPLEMENTARY TRANSACTION — A transaction in which stimulus and response match each other, e.g. P → C, C → P or A → A, A → A.

CONTAMINATION — The invasion of the Adult Ego State by Parent or Child, so that Parent or Child data is presented as though it is Adult - the source of Prejudices.

CONTRACT — A decision by the Adult to achieve something with realistic knowledge of how it is to be done. Widely used in therapy.

CROSSED TRANSACTIONS — A transaction in which the response does not match the stimulus, e.g. A → A, P → C.

CULTURAL SCRIPTS — Scripts in which life plans of individuals are laid down by the culture they live in.

CURSE	A Parental destructive injunction to a child, coming from the not OK Child of the Parent.
COUNTER SCRIPT	A life plan based on prescriptions from nurturing Parent, normally in unequal conflict with the script.
CHILD EGO STATE	One of the three Primary Ego States - the one concerned with the impulses and emotions that come naturally to an infant and the tapes of his early experiences.

D

DISCOUNTS	Are either lack of attention or negative attention that hurts emotionally or physically. Strokes received can be discounted by oneself. Other people can be ignored or given negative strokes.
DRAMA ANALYSIS	The analysis of a number of transactions in terms of exchanging roles of Rescuer, Victim and Persecutor.
DRIVERS	Messages absorbed in childhood which remain as driving forces. Can be reduced to four or five. Hurry Up. Be Perfect. Please Me. Be Strong. Try Hard.

E

ELECTRODE	The activated curse originally planted in childhood.
EPISCRIPT	Sometimes called Overscript. An excess of parental programming.
EXCLUSION	The building up of psychic energy exclusively in one ego state, excluding the others by rigid ego boundaries.

F

FAMILY SCRIPT	Life script laid down by family for individual within it.
FIRST DEGREE GAME (SECOND, THIRD ...)	First degree is socially acceptable in the agents circle. Second degree is generally concealed but no permanent damage arises, and third degree is played for keeps.
FROG	The change from a Prince as a result of experiences of discounting, so a change from a winner to a loser.
FAIRY GODMOTHER	The equivalent of the Witch Mother but operating benevolently. The male equivalent is the Jolly Green Giant.

G

GAME	One way of structuring time. It involves a crossed transaction, a put down and an earning of a favourite bad feeling.
GALLOWS TRANSACTION	Initiated by a gallows laugh of laughing at his own tragedy thus confirming the injunction behind his behaviour and tightening the noose.

H

HARMATIC SCRIPT	Self destructive script leading to tragic ending.
HOOK	A stimulus which has an ulterior message which pulls in or hooks another person's ego state. It is most frequently to be seen in games.

I

INJUNCTION	A prohibition or negative command from a parent.
INTIMACY	A way of structuring time. Game-free exchange of emotional expression without exploitation.
INTROJECTIVE POSITION	The position of I'm not OK, You're OK.

K

KARPMAN TRIANGLE	The triangle of Rescuer, Persecutor and Victim. (See Drama Analysis)

L

LITTLE PROFESSOR	Second order Child ego state position. The creative and manipulative part of the Child.

M

MARSHMALLOWS (GUMDROPS)	Patronising Parental supportive statements which are transactionally brush-offs.
MICKY MOUSE	A manipulative position of the underdog with no power, but manipulating from that position via apologetic wheedling defensive behaviour.

N

NATURAL CHILD	The Child ego state in its untouched primeval form with basic feelings of joy, frustration, etc.

O

OGRE	The Parent father when coming on with Parental injunctions from his not OK Child to a child. Sometimes known as the Ugly Troll.
OK - NOT OK	The two variables in Life Positions.

P

PASTIMES	A form of time structuring, passing time by innocuous talking with others. The level is safe and superficial.
PERMISSIONS	The statement to the Adult of a subject that he is allowed to reject part of his script.
PERSECUTOR	A second level analysis of Parent Ego state. A not OK Parental position of imposing positions on others. Also a role in drama analysis.
PRINCE (PRINCESS)	The state of OK-ness all are born into and can work to achieve again.
PROJECTIVE POSITION	The position of I'm OK, You're not OK.
PUT-DOWN	A negative stroke.
PARENT EGO STATE	One of the three primary Ego States - the one concerned with nurturing, rule setting and controlling.
PIG PARENT	The parent in the Child Ego State originating from the Child in the parent. See Witch Mother and Ogre.
PRESCRIPTIONS	A set of precepts offered from the nurturing Parent.

R

RACKETS	The favourite bad feelings we have (e.g. jealousy, anger) which we work to have justified particularly via games.
RE-PARENTING	(Schiff Rehabilitation Project) A therapy method of regression to infancy and then progress through destroying old Parent tapes and forming a new Parent ego state.

RITUAL	A method of time structuring. Simple and stereotyped complementary transactions, e.g. Greetings.
RESCUER	Role taken from not OK Parent in gaming to make rescuing gestures which do not solve problem but ensure continuance of the game.
REDEMPTION TIME	Time when trading stamps are traded in for redemption of a favourite feeling expressed in behaviour.
	S
SCRIPTS	A life plan for an individual based on a decision made in childhood, reinforced by parents, justified by events and culminating in a chosen alternative.
SPELLBREAKER	An internal release which lifts an injunction and frees a person from his script so that he can fulfill his own autonomous aspirations.
STOPPER	A powerful injunction given by the parent to the child and incorporated into her script.
STROKES	Strokes are any act implying recognition of another's presence and can be negative or positive.
STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS	Analysis of personality in terms of PAC.
SUPER MOUSE	The manipulative position of top dog through demands and threats.
SWEAT SHIRTS	A life motto which is apparent from the person's demeanour in public.
SANTA CLAUS	The illusory source of the illusory gift which the Child spends his life waiting for.
	T
TAPES	The recorded experience of the individual of all that has happened to him, stored for replay in the brain and nervous tissue.
TIME STRUCTURING	The analysis of the use of time in terms of Withdrawal, Rituals, Pastimes, Intimacy and Games.
TRADING STAMPS	Favourite feelings collected as the pay-off in games, which are cashed in to enable indulgence in a justified behaviour. White for Purity, Red for Anger, Blue for Depression.

U

ULTERIOR TRANSACTIONS — An underlying transaction of separate ego states than the apparent transaction. Generally found in Games.

V

VICTIM — Role taken from not OK Child, hooking rescuers and persecutors.

W

WITCH MOTHER — The parent mother when coming on with Parental injunctions from her not OK or Crazy Child.

WITHDRAWAL — A method of structuring time by withdrawing out of transactions into reverie, dreams, etc.

PAPER 6

NON - VERBAL COMMUNICATION

PAPER NO. 6

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

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NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

1. Introduction

1.1 One of the ways we communicate with other people is by speech. We often think of this as the major, if not the only, way in which we can make ourselves understood. We concentrate on putting our words together in such a way that our meaning is absolutely clear. We hope our speech conveys exactly the meaning we want it to convey.

1.2 Yet this is only a part, and the less important part, of the communication process. Non-verbal mechanisms of communication have a much greater impact on us than verbal ones. Animals, indeed, have to communicate entirely non-verbally, and have an extensive repertoire of signs for doing this.

1.3 Normally verbal and non-verbal messages support each other in an interactive way. We say:

"I like being with you."

We support this with an open smile, and movement nearer to our respondent. She hears the words, but it is the non-verbal signs that really get the message over. She is convinced by the smile, not the meaning of the five words. If the word meaning is contradicted by non-verbal signs, however, it is the latter we believe. If we say:-

"I like being with you."

but our smile never reaches our eyes, which remain cold or hostile, and we lean backwards with our body stiff and tense, then our respondent will not believe we like being with them. Words have an unequal fight with non-verbal signs. When we try to recall social exchanges, such as an interview for a job, we find it much more difficult to remember the words spoken than our perceptions about how people were acting towards us - in a friendly or hostile or concerned way, for example.

1.4 One of the major differences between verbal and non-verbal communication is that verbal messages are conscious and pre-thought while non-verbal messages very frequently are not. Both the giver and receiver are often not conscious of what is passing between them. A frequently quoted example of this is eye pupil dilation. When one person feels attracted to another his eye pupil will dilate, and this in turn is a very powerful signal of attraction to the receiver. Neither, however, will be aware of the giving or receiving of a message that is establishing a bond between them.

2. The Mechanisms of Non-Verbal Communication

We can divide these mechanisms into those associated with the tactile, visual, auditory and olefactory senses.

2.1 Tactile Communication

Sending messages by means of touch is limited by strong taboos or conventions about body contact found in most societies or cultures. The English are not prone to much body contact except in certain stylised forms (e.g. handshakes) or special relationships (e.g. between lovers). Most European peoples touch more than the English, though the English touch more than, for example, the Indians. We can divide tactile messages into:-

(i) those concerned with hitting or other agressive contact

(ii) those concerned with caressing or stroking

(iii) those concerned with greeting people or saying farewell

(iv) those concerned with guiding another person's movements

2.2 Visual Communication

We can divide these messages into seven types.

2.2.1 Proximity. The nearness or distance which people take towards each other indicates the way they are feeling towards them. Generally the more a person likes another, or the more interested he is in what he is saying or doing, the closer he moves to him. Conversely people who do not want to convey intimacy, interest or friendship keep their distance.

2.2.2 Orientation. The way in which a person handles the space around him and positions himself in relation to others gives various messages. Asking someone to sit next to you gives a different relationship to sitting opposite them with a desk in between. A teacher can sit behind a desk on a dais in front of the class, or he can sit in a circle of chairs with his students. A housewife can stand at the door and talk to a salesman or she can ask him in to sit down. All variations of positioning and placing are making statements to the recipient.

2.2.3 Posture. The way a person stands or sits, and particularly the way he holds his back and shoulders, gives very clear messages reflecting anger, dominance, impatience, defeat or depression, alertness, etc. Very often it is possible to tell what mood a person is in before we see his features or hear his voice by the way he stands. Careful observation of changes of posture of a member in committee give clear messages of what he thinks about what is being said or who is saying it.

2.2.4 Physical Appearance. We make decisions about how we appear to other people. We control our clothes, our hair, to some extent through the use of cosmetics our skin and nails. We generally make these decisions on the basis of what image we want to portray and how we want other people to perceive us. The clothes we wear for any specific occasion give clues about how we see the occasion and how we intend to relate to the people there. Most obviously, this operates along the dimension of formality-informality. To some extent we can manipulate our appearance during a meeting by taking off our jacket or shoes, ruffling our hair, or loosening our tie.

2.2.5 Gaze)
Facial Expressions) These particularly important mechanisms will be given more extended treatment below.
Gestures)

2.3 Auditory Communication

Apart from the actual meaning of words, we convey many messages in our speech by the tone of voice we use (which may belie the words themselves), our accent, timing and stress of speech rhythms, and speed of delivery. Of these by far the most powerful in impact is the tone of voice which can communicate emotional states, but generally all the various factors work together. For example, if someone is conveying excitement in his tone of voice, this will also affect the speed of his speech.

2.4 Olefactory Communication

Animals use smell extensively in their communications, giving off different smells for special purposes. It is likely that humans do the same - we do after all talk about the smell of fear - but our sense of smell has become much weakened in the course of evolution, and it may now play a relatively unimportant part in communications except when deliberately manipulated by the use of artificial smells. The use of scents and perfumes of one sort or another is a very conscious way of passing messages about oneself.

3. Three Key Mechanisms

3.1 Gaze. This is a very powerful means of communication. It is odd that it is both a channel of communication - i.e. a way of seeing things, and a transmitter of messages since the very act of looking at something implies an act of recognition of some sort.

Long gazes (that is of more than six seconds) generally indicate very high degrees of intimacy and liking, and are normally associated with other signs of this such as touching or close proximity. The more a person is deprived of these other signs in such a situation, the longer tends to be his gaze. Long gazes can also be used to indicate other strong feelings such as aggression.

Shorter glances of under six seconds are used for various purposes. Commonly they are used at the end of an utterance, in order to check on how it has been received. This terminal glance is also used as a synchronisation device to indicate the intention of pausing, so the next speaker knows when to come in.

Glances can be used as specific signals. They are frequently used to indicate to another person across the room a willingness to enter into an interaction, and the recipient responds with a glance signifying agreement, or looks away signifying unwillingness. Glances can also be used to catch a chairman's eye, or to make a bid at an auction.

During a conversation between two people, the exchange of looks on average occupies between 25 per cent and 75 per cent of each of their time. During some of this time, they will both be looking at each other, something like 15 per cent to 50 per cent of their time. People look more when they are listening than when they are talking (generally about twice as much), and look away most often when unsure of what they are saying or finding its expression difficult.

3.2 Gestures. There is a vocabulary of gesture which is fairly well understood throughout all cultures. A beckoning gesture can, for example, be recognised almost anywhere in the world, as can pointing for the purposes of directing someone's attention to an object. Each society also develops very specific gestures which have meaning only to that particular society. The number of these vary very much from one society to another. In this country we have about 20 but in Naples there are something like 200. There are also some specialised gesture languages used where speech is not possible, for example in Broadcasting Studios or on Race Tracks.

One of the major functions of gesture therefore seems to be to supplement the meaning of our words by emphasis or clarification, or replacing speech where it is not possible.

Involuntary gestures in apparently pointless body movements, such as clenching fists or tapping feet indicate emotional arousal. Frequently such gestures indicate anxiety or worry, but they can also indicate aggression, tiredness or concern for someone. Such gestural clues are important in estimating whether the meaning of the words is congruent with the feelings of the speaker. The man who is accepting blame for a failure with apparent good grace may show by the clenching of his fists and other signs that he is really very angry indeed.

3.3 Facial Expressions. The face can display many different kinds of feelings. It can indicate anger, suffering, happiness, contempt, fear, etc. When people make no attempt to control their facial muscles, then we normally see very clearly these feelings, but very often we do exercise some control. We wish in most company to guard ourselves from too much revelation of our feelings, and so we may smile sweetly while seething with fury inside. It is also the case that there are some differences cross-culturally. The Japanese, for example, do not expect to display or see displayed negative feelings in facial expressions, and find difficulty in interpreting these when meeting English or American people.

Facial expressions are affected by perspiration of the forehead, blushing, expansion of the eye pupil, tightening of the facial and neck muscles, but most of all changes in the eyebrows and mouth area. Our face comments upon what other people are saying to us and gives them quite powerful feedback. The eyebrows are particularly useful for this. They provide a continuous running commentary, something like the following:-

fully raised	-	disbelief
half raised	-	surprise
normal	-	no comment
half lowered	-	puzzled
fully lowered	-	angry

The area round the mouth supplements the work of the eyebrows by expression of pleasure when the mouth is turned up, displeasure when it is turned down. The mouth area also involuntarily displays emotions. We may be tight-lipped when trying to control anger, twitching of the lips or moistening the lips with the tongue when nervous or under strain, full lips pushed well forward when inviting close intimacy, etc.

4. The Functions of Non-Verbal Communication

The following are the main functions served by non-verbal communication.

4.1 It can support verbal communication. We have already described how gestures can add to or emphasise the words being used, terminal gazes can be used to aid in synchronisation of speech. Tone of voice and facial expression can indicate the mood in which we mean our remarks to be taken - whether serious or light-heartedly for example. The feedback we need when we are speaking on how others are responding so that we can modify our remarks accordingly, is obtained from a variety of non-verbal devices. All these are ways of supporting our verbal communication.

4.2 As stated above, it can replace speech, when speech is not possible.

4.3 It can perform certain ritualistic functions of everyday life and, in particular, it can communicate complex messages in greetings and farewell ceremonies.

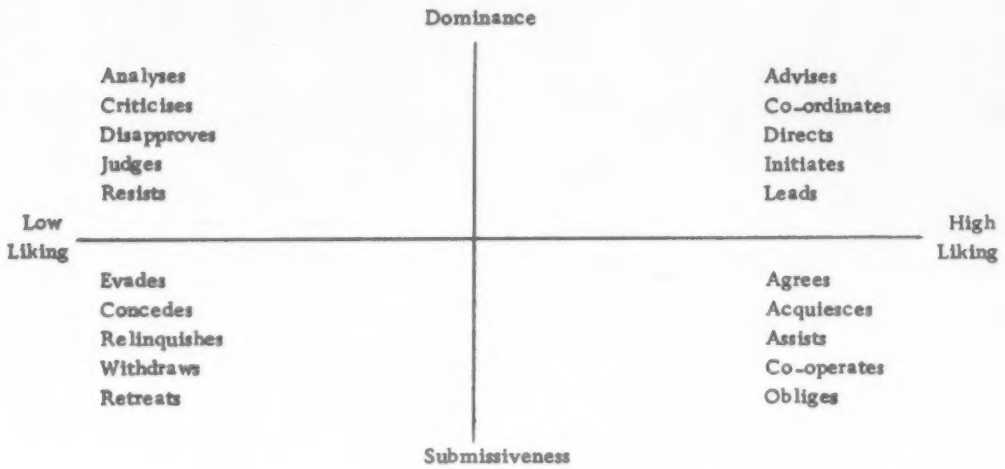
4.4 It can express the feelings we have about other people. These will tend to be along the three dimensions of:

Liking or Disliking

Dominant or Submissive Behaviour

Strong or Weak Reaction

This can be expressed diagrammatically in the following way:



4.5 It can be used to express what condition or state of feeling we are in, though we might try to suppress or control this. This is most clearly done by facial expression, though the hands display very well the degree of tension and strength (though not type) of emotion.

4.6 It can be used to state how we would like other people to see us, the way we present ourselves for public scrutiny.

5. Why Bother with Non-Verbal Communication

5.1 It is fundamental to any attempt to improve our interpersonal skills that we understand what messages are passing between ourselves and others. Non-verbal communication is particularly important to understand because it has such a strong impact. Dr. A. Mehrabian concluded as a result of his researches that of the messages received 7 per cent are verbal, 38 per cent are vocal, and 55 per cent are facial. Michael Argyle suggests that non-verbal messages are sixteen times as strong as verbal ones. Clearly if this is the case, then we need to pay great attention to it.

5.2 Furthermore, skill in understanding non-verbal communication enables us to see any disparity between the meaning of the verbal message and the unspoken opinions of the sender. If we develop this skill it enables us to tune into our feelings of discomfort that words we are hearing do not quite ring true.

5.3 Thirdly, non-verbal communication tells us about the feelings and emotions of people in a way that verbal utterances very seldom do. This is often the crucial information we need to know.

5.4 Finally, we may be able to learn better to control our own non-verbal messages in those situations where this is important. For example, the teacher may well like some of her students and dislike others - she needs to control her non-verbal as well as her verbal behaviour so that such feelings are not apparent. A similar need to control non-verbal messages may be the concern of the host at a party or a counsellor with clients.

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Further Reading

Three popular books that examine non-verbal behaviour are:

1. Fast, J. Body Language Pocket Books, New York 1971

2. Morris, D. Manwatching Cape 1977.

3. Elkman, P. and Friesen, W. Unmasking the Face Spectrum 1975.

For many years, Michael Argyle has been conducting research in this field, and the results of his studies are collected together in:

4. Argyle, M. Bodily Communication Tavistock 1969.

Another valuable collection of work by various scholars is:

5. Hinde, R. (Ed.) Non-Verbal Communication Cambridge University Press 1972.

A very useful introductory film to the subject is:

6. Communication: The Non-Verbal Agenda. Produced by Training Films International Ltd., St. Mary's Street, Whitchurch, Salop and available for hire.

PAPER 7

THE COUNSELLING INTERVIEW

PAPER NO. 7

THE COUNSELLING INTERVIEW

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THE COUNSELLING INTERVIEW

1. Introduction

1.1 Any person who is responsible for some of the work of other people will find himself every so often needing to engage in a face to face interview session with one of them. A part of the manager's job is being responsible for the resolution of problems of substance that face his staff, and some of these can only be resolved by a personal interview session. It follows that if this is a part of his job, then it is necessary that he develops the technical and attitudinal skills which he needs to manage such sessions. Unfortunately in most occupations the need for such training is hardly recognised, let alone the willingness or opportunity to undertake formal training, and this is the situation generally in colleges of FE. Few Heads of Department, Section Heads, Librarians, Registrars, Vice Principals or Principals have had any formal training in counselling or interviewing and most of them rely on common sense and the experience of having been in charge of men and women over some length of time. Unschooled common sense and experience may work for some teachers in some situations some of the time, but it is a very hit or miss affair, and it is difficult to justify such an amateur approach in one of the key areas of management. For it is clear that difficulties in handling the counselling interview or resolving the persistent personnel problems that arise from failure in the interview are among the most worrying problems that managers in colleges face.

1.2 The following sections of this paper are intended to give some help, but cannot be expected to replace formal training courses. The purpose of the paper is to encourage all those involved in the management of people to seek out and undertake some basic training in counselling interviewing.

2. Definition of the Area

2.1 What is it that we are describing as a counselling interview? We can consider three types of interview.

2.2 The first of these is the disciplinary interview, in which in one way or another a member of staff has behaved in ways which are not acceptable to the manager. A typical instance might be a staff member has persistently failed to be at his classes on time or has failed to keep adequate record of his students' performance. This kind of interview is not really open to counselling techniques. Given that there is a proven misdemeanour, the situation the Principal or Head of Department organises is a formal one in which an eventually hierarchical and judgemental communication is made to the recipient. The manager has the rule book on his side and is making the statement "You change or else". It is one-way communication, for the recipient is not required to say anything. Such interviews, one hopes, are rare in FE colleges, and managers should do all they can to avoid reaching that situation. Not only is it destructive of staff relationships and unlikely to increase the motivation of the recipient to do his work well, but may not even achieve its ostensible purpose. The recipient may well carry on with his unacceptable behaviour but be more careful that it is disguised or covert. However, we have to accept that there are times when every other avenue has been explored, and the manager has no choice but to invoke sanctions in a disciplinary interview.

2.3 Many matters initially seen as disciplinary by the manager may, however, rather than initiate a formal disciplinary interview lead into the second type of interview. This is the appraisal interview, in which the staff member and manager explore and analyse performance in the job in some way or other. The word is not used here in its narrow sense of a formal annual job appraisal as typically described in management literature, but is expanded to include any interview which is looking at how a member of staff is getting along. It would include feedback sessions on new ventures, staff development interviews, the analysis of any kind of apparent blockage in a staff member's work, and apparent failures to conform to expected behaviour.

2.4 The third type is the personal interview. In this the staff member typically has a problem in his personal life; in his relationships with others; within his own personality; or in his practical circumstances; any of which is seen by him to be affecting his work and life in the college. Whereas the appraisal interview may be initiated either by the manager or the interviewee, the personal interview commonly would be initiated by the interviewee.

2.5 In practice, many counselling interviews will contain elements of both types, or may move at stages in the interview from one to another. It is not uncommon for an interview that starts off on a disciplinary point to lead into appraisal and then a discussion of personal problems. In essence, the differences between the two types is very small, and for our purposes we can treat them both together. We do not include, however, intereviews concerned with staff selection or with technical and administrative matters, neither are we commenting further on the disciplinary interview.

3. The Objectives of the Interview

3.1 Interviews very commonly go wrong because of a misapprehension of their objective. As a consequence of an interview, if it is initiated by him, the manager hopes for a change in observable behaviour, either in improved skill, greater knowledge, or most commonly in changed attitude, which will enable the staff member not only to deal with the existing problem but also avoid generation of such problems in the future.

3.2 The objective of the interview must therefore be to reach a point where the staff member finds a solution acceptable to him, which he sees as his solution to his problem, and which he is committed to implementing. Any solution which is imposed, which is not fully accepted by the staff member, and which is really the solution of the manager, is unlikely to achieve any useful change in behaviour.

3.3 It is the inability to keep clear this distinction which makes fruitless so many interviews. Most managers have been trained or have come to accept that in the last resort, and sometimes well before that, it is their decision that has to stand. While there may be many areas of their managerial work where this is a reasonable point of view, it is totally unproductive in the counselling interview. The managerial decision may on the surface be accepted but unless it is internalised by the staff member then it is of no value. For if he does not really accept a decision, he has a hundred ways of preventing it being operated without any open defiance of the management.

4. The Overall Strategy of the Counselling Interview

4.1 If we agree that the objective is to find a solution acceptable to the staff member, then the overall strategy of the interview must be to help him explore his own position, to help him define his problem and find a practical course of action to which he is committed and to create the conditions in which this exploration and solution can happen.

4.2 It follows that the very last thing a manager should be giving is advice. Advice is totally counter-productive to effective counselling. Advice is a statement of what the solution is for the manager if hypothetically he were in the problem situation. The objective is not, however, to find solutions for the manager, nor is it to exhibit the superior problem-solving capacity of the manager. Advice is at the best irrelevant to the objective, at worst is the exercise of management power.

4.3 We face, however, a considerable problem in implementing this strategy. Teachers find it very difficult not to give advice and exhortation. This, after all, is their training, it has been part of their daily business of being a teacher since they first qualified. However much they may wish to switch their mode of operating in counselling interviews to non-directive facilitating, in practice it generally proves to be too difficult without some formal training. If the college employs a professional counsellor, then he or she will have been trained in this skill, and can help the teacher or manager to begin acquiring it. But it certainly does not come easily to the average staff member or manager.

4.4 To summarise the point of this section:

> The strategy of the counselling interview must be to enable the staff member to reach a solution which is his own.

5. Preconditions of the Counselling Interview

5.1 Counselling interviews, whether of the appraisal, disciplinary or personal type, are only likely to have a successful outcome if certain preconditions are satisfied.

5.2 The first and most important of these is the existence of trust between the two people involved. Both must feel confident that the other will not take advantage on another occasion of facts, attitudes, opinions and responses revealed during the interview. Both must therefore believe that the other means well towards him, is concerned with his well-being, does not want to do him down. It is not necessary that the relationship shall be one of great friendship. It can be entirely neutral in the affective sense, but it must have this level of basic trust. Normally the counselling interview would be bound by the rules of confidentiality on both parties, such that only with the express agreement of the individual should any facts of the interview be passed on to anyone else.

5.3 The corollary of the need for trust is that the two people involved must be relatively open with each other. Interviews will only be reasonably successful if openness is seen to be practised by both. One of the commoner causes of abortive interviews is the unwillingness of the interviewee to reveal many of the essential facts of his situation, and the failure of the interviewer to encourage or respond to openness. Both are secretive, protective of themselves, disclosing only those parts of themselves which seem safe. This generally arises because of a lack of trust, a suspicion of the other person in this kind of interview. It is understandable enough because the face-to-face situation can be a threatening one to people who are not used to operating on the principle of trust and openness.

5.4 The third precondition is the recognition of the equal standing of the other person, a mutual respect of the work of each other and each other's ideas and statements. We cannot of course deny the existence of different hierarchic ranks or functions but, within the overall acceptance of this, it is important for the manager to recognise the rights of the person he is interviewing, and particularly his right to be seen as equally intelligent, perceptive, motivated and committed. If the unspoken (and possibly subconscious) assumption is that the manager is somehow better endowed with these attributes, then the interview is doomed to failure because it is in effect a reinforcement of the power of the manager to be seen as the superior person. In Transactional Analysis terms it is the position of 'I'm OK - You're not OK - So you need my help'.

5.5 The fourth precondition is that there should be acceptance by both that they may have to change their own attitudes or opinions. The mutual acceptance of change means that the manager cannot work on the principle that all changes are going to have to be made by the person he is interviewing. Inevitably any period of fruitful interpersonal relationship will be dynamic and reactive, and lead to changes and adjustments by both parties, but this process is not always recognised by the manager who may be very resistant to change in himself while encouraging a great deal of change in the interviewee. On occasions it may be that after discussion of a problem it is the manager who needs to make changes himself, and the staff member to remain as he is.

5.6 The fifth precondition is that the manager should not bring into the meeting any strong feelings of anger, hostility or the like. Very strong negative emotional reactions will make any constructive work towards a solution very difficult. Such a situation most commonly arises in the disciplinary interview, although by no means confined to that, and it may be sparked off by the specific circumstances that have occasioned the interview, or be a reflection of a longer term feeling of anger or hostility. In Transactional Analysis terms, this is the 'Not OK Child' of the manager taking charge; and it clearly makes a counselling interview impossible. However, although strong emotional reactions are disfunctional, it is important that the manager creates an atmosphere of support and warmth.

5.7 To summarise the above points, we have suggested that the essential preconditions for a successful counselling session are:

The Existence of Trust
Openness
Recognition of Equal Standing and Mutual Respect
Mutual Acceptance of Change
Avoidance of Strong Emotional Feelings

6. The Counselling Interview

6.1 We can divide our consideration of the counselling interview into Setting and Process. The Setting is the background or scenery against which the events happen and the Process is the activity of the two participants against this background.

6.2 The Setting. We only have to recall the rooms of a number of college Principals or Heads of Department to observe how different they are in appearance. If we have a room of our own, we arrange it to reflect an image of ourselves, an image presumably reflecting how we want to be seen publicly in our function as the holder of a particular job. There are certainly no rules about how we should or should not arrange our rooms. Some may like a room with a clear desk and tidy appearance, others prefer to have one with work in various stages scattered

on every available surface. Some like to fill walls with charts and diagrams, others like blank walls, still others like their own personal choice of pictures or posters. Some have nothing in the office that does not reflect their job, others let all sorts of interests from their private life intrude such as family photographs, golf clubs, etc. Some spend care in arranging their room with aesthetic sensitivity and do not have an ugly object or discordant colour in sight: others pay no attention to the aesthetic appearance at all.

6.3 In one sense none of this matters at all: it is entirely up to the room occupant to express himself as he thinks fit. But in the counselling situation it is going to make some difference. From the perspective of a staff member coming into a room to discuss some sensitive matter, the clues he picks up from the appearance of the room are a part of the communication process in the counselling interview. We are all aware that different rooms have different feelings or atmospheres - some seem relaxing, others impersonal, messy, forbidding, cold, efficient, etc. If staff members react badly to the atmosphere of the room, they may interpret the clues given out as statements about the manager's attitude. We cannot argue that the manager should arrange his room solely to get the maximum benefit from a counselling interview: after all he uses his room for many other purposes. He might give some thought, however, to the likely effects on the people who enter his room, and consider whether he wants to make some changes in its appearance.

6.4 Some changes are very easy, because they are concerned with non-permanent phenomena. The two most obvious of these are the positioning of chairs, and the dress of the interviewer. In most rooms the occupant has a number of choices of where he places his own and the visitor's chair for a counselling interview. He may take the typical manager's position behind the desk with the other chair in front of it. He may sit behind the desk but turn sideways to a chair brought in at the side of the desk. He may have a larger chair than his visitor, a more comfortable chair or a higher chair. Whatever decision the manager makes, we would suggest it is done with some consideration of the likely effect. Generally his decision is likely to be based on the degree of distance or closeness he wishes to establish, and the degree of dominance or equality he wishes to work in. In a similar way, the manner in which the interviewer dresses gives some clues about distance and formality, and there is no doubt that people respond in their different and subjective ways to the way people dress. We are not of course suggesting that managers try to dress to suit the interviewee, or have one suit for discipline interviews and another for personal interviews. They should, however, at least be aware of the possible effects of all parts of the setting of the interview and that must include their dress. If a manager is failing to generate the relaxed atmosphere or degree of warmth or empathy he is aiming at he might consider, among other things, the effect of his own appearance.

6.5 The Process. No one can be sure before an interview starts how it will proceed. The process is reactive. But the manager can work with some clear guidelines within which the interaction will flow. We suggest that he might take account of the following rules.

6.6 The first of these is that the interview should be free from interruption. If someone comes in through the door, or the telephone rings, it is never possible to get back exactly to the point the interview was at. Something is always lost, and it may be very difficult for the interviewee, painfully working through a problem, to get back onto his line of thought and feeling. Furthermore, it is an indication that the manager cannot or will not give one hundred per cent of his time and attention to the staff member's problem. So doors should be firmly barred, and telephones temporarily cut off.

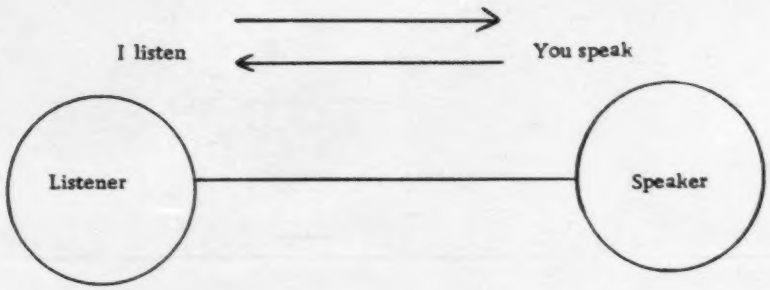
6.7 Secondly, the atmosphere of the interview will be set by the manner in which the staff member is greeted. Michael Argyle in his work on interpersonal behaviour has reported on the effect of various methods of entry into offices, forms of greeting and movements by the incumbent. Clearly the manager who keeps someone waiting in front of his desk while he

finishes some work is asserting dominance but not setting up the atmosphere for a successful counselling interview. Hopefully, he will smile and greet the entrant with an initial tone of voice that expresses non-possessive warmth. He will have to decide whether to rise, to walk round the desk to the entrant, to meet him at the door, to shake hands, to go through various conventions of greeting and ice-breaking. The major point is that the entrant should not feel worse by the time the interview proper starts than he did when he first came through the door.

6.8 The purpose of all subsequent transactions must be to switch, in Transactional Analysis terms, to an Adult to Adult exchange. If the staff member is very upset he may be looking for a Child - Nurturing Parent transaction; if he is very angry he may be looking for a Child - Child transaction (in other words a slanging match); if he is apprehensive at being found fault with, he may be expecting a Child - Critical Parent transaction. But whatever the expectation and the initial exchange, the manager must switch to the Adult - Adult transaction as soon as possible, because only then can reality problems and solutions begin to be explored. One of the problems for the manager is that he might easily find himself hooked into a Nurturing or Critical Parent or into his Angry Child, and indeed might even start the interview in that state so that he was preventing the staff member from staying in his Adult State. If, however, the manager insists on making Adult responses, in the end he will switch the interviewee into his Adult as well. It is essential to do this because only if solutions are accepted by the interviewee in his Adult state is he likely to implement them after he has left the office. If he accepts solutions in his Child state ('I must do what the Boss says') or his Parent state ('That is what I ought to do') then it is very likely he will not implement the solution. This is a hard task for the manager. To stay in the Adult state against pressure to move from it requires some determination and strength of will.

(It might be useful if the reader refers back to Paper No.5, Sections I - IV).

6.9 Operating within this kind of transaction, the manager will need to spend much of his time listening. With only occasional prompting or facilitating he will let the staff member work through the situation, identify the problem and search for solutions. Listening, however, is a difficult skill which most of us lack. We normally do a rough scan of what we are hearing so that we get the general sense, but our mind is also dealing with other matters as well. Other thoughts keep on breaking into our mind, and other stimuli keep on catching our attention. We look out of the window, or at the half-read report on our desk, or begin to think about the next interview we have when this one is finished. Listening with full concentration so that we catch all the nuances and unspoken comments, the non-verbal signs which suggest that something is still hidden, is very hard and requires practice. It is also a very positive act, because the act of concentrated listening conveys the message to the speaker that the listener cares, is prepared to give time and effort, respects what he has to say and wants to hear it. Conversely casual scanning by the listener, accompanied by fidgeting, looking out of the window, or at the ceiling, prowling round the room, picking up or putting down objects, and a bored or faraway look, tells the speaker that the listener does not really care or value what he has to say, or is prepared to put in much effort. It follows that the positive act of listening must be accompanied by some obvious non-verbal signs - for example, of sitting alertly, looking at the speaker and showing an expression of interest and sympathy. We can portray the listening process in the following way:-



I perceive you reacting to my behaviour

You perceive me listening and giving messages about degree of effort, concern, etc.

6.10 The manager will, of course, also be making his own contributions as well as listening, and the amount of this will vary according to the type and circumstances of the interview. We are suggesting that the primary purpose of interventions of the manager is to help the staff member identify problems and find acceptable solutions. The most useful way in which a manager can help in this is:-

Firstly, to lead the staff member through an analysis of the problem as stated to a redefinition of the problem (not, of course, by stating what the 'real' problem is).

Secondly, to present useful relevant information.

Thirdly, to lead him to formulate alternative lines of action (not to state what the alternatives are).

Fourthly, to present fact-based estimates of the consequences of the various lines of action.

Fifthly, to lead him to formulate the lines of action he proposes to follow, and to note both their mutual commitments in this.

The problem for the manager in making interventions, apart from having the skill to respond rapidly with useful statements when the time is right, is to avoid satisfying his own needs for interaction with another person by airing his prejudices, expressing his feelings, making debating points, scoring off the other person, reminiscing, or working out arguments and solutions. He will certainly have to satisfy these needs at various times, but not during the counselling interview.

6.11 Inevitably, no respondent can avoid getting involved to some extent in the dialogue, and each individual will bring in elements of his own style. One way of thinking of these differences of response style is to categorise them into the following:-

The Non-Committal
The Interpretative
The Probing
The Supporting
The Evaluating

Supposing that a staff member, in discussing his future, said:

> "I thought I better tell you - I have had this very good offer of a job back in my old firm. I thought a lot about it but I've decided I would rather stay and make my future in the college. So I will be working for promotion in the Department.

If we suppose that the staff member in the considered view of the Head of Department is not a particularly strong prospect for promotion - in fact is just about adequate in his present job - how might he respond?

The Supportive response might be:

> "Good. I'm glad you've made up your mind where you want to go. I'll be all the help I can in your career, though the promotion race is tough nowadays. If you run across any difficulties you want to talk out I'm always here and if you don't get the promotion you want we will find other ways to help."
>
> (Whatever you decide, I'll make helpful noises.)

The Evaluative response might be:

> "I guess that if you weigh up the pros and cons you are probably doing the best thing for your future."
>
> (I'll tell you whether you've got it right or wrong.)

The Probing response might be:

> "I wonder if you have really thought through the policy of promotion in the college. How do you match up to the possibilities."
>
> (You have got some thinking to do.)

The Interpretative response might be:

> "What you seem to have decided is to go for safety and the familiar work, rather than the challenges and dangers of an unpredictable future."
>
> (I will tell you what you were thinking.)

The Non-Committal Approach might be:

> "You seem to be saying that you see future promotion prospects best in this college."
>
> (Tell me again what you are saying.)

There are times in any interview when we need elements of all five responses, but it is probable that most of us will tend to lapse into our favourite and habitual style, however inappropriate it is. Accepting that elements of all styles are needed, we would argue that the uncommitted response is of particular value. The act of feeding back to the interviewee what he appears to be saying has proved a very effective device for enabling him to analyse his situation.

6.12 We do not want to argue that the manager must avoid all expression of warmth just because we are suggesting that his major activity will be positive listening, providing of facts and uncommitted responses of feeding back what has been said. Indeed one of the key elements in successful counselling appears to be the establishment of empathy. Obviously there must be a relationship between the manager and the staff member for anything to happen at all. Sympathy or pity or possessive warmth are unhelpful. Empathy is perhaps best defined as the acceptance by the interviewee that the interviewer understands his feelings or is trying to do so, without making any demands from that knowledge. It requires suspension of concern with one's own needs, feelings and thoughts, to concentrate on being with the needs, feelings and thoughts of the other.

6.13 In relation to empathy and most of the other points we have made, the part of non-verbal behaviour is crucial. All the small signs and gestures of our facial muscles, hands and bodies, which were described in Paper 6, either reinforce or destroy the effect we are trying to make. The skilful interviewer has to acquire control of his non-verbal behaviour.

6.14 The final point to make is that although we have referred several times to defining the problem and then finding a solution, there are many situations where there is no apparent solution. The problem and the situation may be unalterable, but the value of the counselling interview is that the staff member's perception of his situation may be changed. To come to a realistic understanding of his situation may be the first step to moving from a distorted and harmatic view to a tolerance of the situation and its accompanying pressures and stresses. So it would be a mistake to strain after a solution at all costs, or regard the exercise as a failure if a solution does not emerge.

7. Conclusion

7.1 We can summarise much of what has been said in this paper in the following tabular form:

Counselling Interviews should be:	Counselling Interviews should not be:
Necessary	Ritualistic
Open to change	Closed to change
Trusting	Distrusting
Descriptive	Evaluative
Adult - Adult	Parent or Child
Positive	Negative
Building	Destroying
Accepting	Rejecting
Listening	Telling
Together	Apart
Respecting	Condescending

7.2 It is unlikely that all those in management positions will be able to become trained in counselling skills. Many will see formal training as a low priority among the many calls on their time. For those who do desire some professional help, there are in most areas short courses which will help to improve the manager's skill, without committing him to large investments of time or full professional training. If the college or the local Polytechnic has a team of fully qualified counsellors, then they can provide expert help and advice to managers as required.

If, however, the manager is not able or is unwilling to take part in any kind of training, however brief, then a careful study of the points made in this paper may help him to improve his technique in interviews with his staff.

****

Further Reading

Most of the books on counselling are written for those who are professional counsellors or are in training. Furthermore most are about counselling students in a school setting.

There is little for the manager who is not intending to become a counsellor, but who does want some useful help. We would recommend two books:

1. Sperry, L. and Hess, L.R. Contact Counselling. Published by Addison-Wesley 1974.

   This is an extremely valuable book to work through, with a great deal of practical material, exercises and cases. It focuses on the manager in the organisation, and uses a Transactional Analysis background.

2. Wilmot, W. Dyadic Communication: A Transactional Perspective. Published by Addison-Wesley 1975.

   This is a useful book that concentrates on what happens between two people when they relate, and has many points of value to conducting a counselling interview.

3. Bargoyne, J., Boydell, T., and Pedler, M. Self Development. Published by the Association of Teachers of Management. N.D.

   This booklet describes various methods of self development for managers, and more properly belongs to the book list at the end of Paper 8. However, on page 82 it gives a very useful table of Unhelpful Actions and Helpful Actions which is worth consulting in the context of the counselling interview.

For those who wish to study counselling in greater depth we recommend the following two books because of the influence they have had on the development of counsellor training in this country.

4. Halmos, P. The Faith of the Counsellors. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

5. Rogers, C. Client-Centred Therapy. Constable.

PAPER 8

A SUMMARY OF APPROACHES TO INTER-PERSONAL SKILLS TRAINING

PAPER NO. 8

A SUMMARY OF APPROACHES TO INTERPERSONAL SKILLS TRAINING

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A SUMMARY OF APPROACHES TO INTER-PERSONAL SKILLS TRAINING

1. Introduction

1.1 In the previous papers, we have suggested ways in which people may improve their skill in relating with other people. These included Transactional Analysis Workshops, Team Development and Interaction Analysis. In this paper we will describe some of the remaining forms of Inter-Personal Skills Training.

1.2 In looking at these various training methods we can make distinctions based on such criteria as the following:

1. We can distinguish between those that emphasise personal growth as against those that emphasise specific instrumental skills.
2. We can distinguish between those whose main perspective is the organisation and those whose main perspective is the individual.
3. We can distinguish between training programmes that are relatively structured as against those which are relatively unstructured.
4. We can distinguish between those which are mostly controlled by the trainers and those mostly controlled by the members.
5. We can distinguish between those that concentrate on the group and its problems as against those that concentrate on the individual and his problems.

1.3 Though training schemes can have any mix of these five characteristics, there is a tendency for there to be at one end of a spectrum schemes that are unstructured, member-controlled, concerned with the individual and personal growth, and at the other end schemes that are structured, trainer-controlled concerned with improving skills for the good of the organisation. We should emphasise, however, that all the schemes will have elements of each of the opposing qualities. One that is heavily orientated towards improving specific instrumental skills useful to the organisation will also have elements contributing to personal growth. Most unstructured programmes will have some structuring, and the most rigid will have moments of free-flowing uncontrolled activity.

1.4 In the first part of this paper we will look briefly at the following training programmes:

The Coverdale Approach;

ERGOM;

The Questionnaire Type Approach as exemplified by the programmes of Friedlander, Blake and Reddin.

In the second part we will look at varieties of sensitivity or laboratory training, and, in particular at:

T-Groups;
Encounter Groups.

2. The Coverdale Approach

2.1 This method was developed in England by Ralph Coverdale, and received considerable publicity because of its application at the Esso Fawley Refinery. The basic course lasts one week with a follow-up course six to twelve months later.

2.2 The underlying aim of Coverdale training is to help managers improve their skills of working with other people, and for this purpose participants work in groups within a tightly-structured programme of practical tasks. The purpose is to develop a systematic approach to getting things done by analysing the problem and then planning and co-ordinating the sequence of events necessary for its resolution. To do this, members of the group have to learn to interact effectively together, sort out their respective roles and behaviours, and make full use of the human resources available.

2.3 It is claimed that the nature of the tasks is immaterial, as they are merely a vehicle for learning, and most of them are short and apparently simple - for example, building a tower with lego bricks, sorting playing cards, etc.

2.4 Although there is no deliberate emphasis on inter-personal phenomena, participants learn that 'people problems' and group process problems interfere with getting the task done, and have to be taken account of in any planning for resolving a task problem. It is a tenet of the Coverdale system that the kind of 'people issues' which arise when people work together doing things are different from the 'people issues' which arise when people merely talk about what they might do in hypothetical situations. This is why the programme is structured round operational tasks. Although Coverdale does not specifically work on people's sensitivity and social perception, it is claimed that managers do learn the skills of observation and listening, and of discernment of the special talents and capacities of others.

2.5 However, such learning as takes place is between people all pursuing the same objectives using the same recommended systematic approach, and this may have little relationship to the kinds of problems common in organisations. Furthermore, while the absence of theoretical input and conceptualisation of social and personal processes has considerable attraction to many down-to-earth managers, it may mean that members leave the course unable to generalise their learning to a problem outside those that they encountered on the course.

2.6 The Coverdale system serves as an example of highly structured, tutor-controlled training, emphasising the learning of skills necessary for organisational performance rather than personal development and growth.

For further description see:

Coverdale Training for Development. Training Partnerships, 1967.

3. ERGOM

3.1 ERGOM is formed from the initial letters of the European Research Group on Management, and was developed by Bass and his associates in the latter sixties. It provides a form of group training based on a clearly defined structure of exercises, most of which are simulations in which the participant has to make or recommend decisions. Though the programme can be varied to suit the demands of a particular organisation, the basic programme is of one week and consists of ten or eleven exercises - i.e. about 2 a day.

3.2 The participant is involved in four stages in each exercise. Firstly, he works on the task alone, and during this period he forms his attitudes and beliefs about the issues in question. Next, he takes part in the group (generally of 6-8 members) which works to reach a group decision. During this period a trainer is present, primarily as an observer. The third stage is a group review triggered off by a questionnaire or other device built into the exercise. This group activity aims to confront members with the implication of their activities, both in process and in task terms, and with the interaction between the two. The trainer becomes more active, helping the group to clarify its understanding of the experiences it has had, and relating them to 'here and now' behaviour. Groups may try to avoid examination of their behaviour, of their interactions and personal motivations and feelings, by concentrating on the mechanics of the task situation, and the trainer's job is to help the group realise its indulgence in this avoidance behaviour.

The final stage is a plenary session where groups meet together to share and compare their experience. There is often considerable resistance by groups to plenary sessions and again the trainer needs to help the members clarify and understand this resistance. The main value of the plenary is that it makes groups classify and order their learning, both in process and task terms, by having to express it to others.

3.4 The general objective of an ERGOM workshop is to assist group development and decision-making together with the related inter-personal skills by the provision of structured learning experiences. The structure is designed so that the group deals thoroughly with process issues, but within a clearer and more stable framework than is found in a traditional T-Group. This gives many people a greater feeling of security. The self-study of one's own behaviour is facilitated by questionnaires, self-ratings and other feedback devices, which are shared with other members of the group. On the basis of this, and the experience of successive tasks, participants can immediately try out new behaviour and check back on them so that their skill improves during the week. The frequent input of tasks, most of them in the form of simulations in work organisations, emphasise that the development of inter-personal skills is not for most people an end in itself but a means of improving task performance.

3.5 An ERGOM workshop is a powerful concentrated experience which has attempted with some success to join together a high degree of task structuring with a high degree of member control, a concern with process skills and a concern with task skills, a recognition of the individual's problems and experiences of relating to other people and a recognition of the need for group effectiveness. As a training scheme it treads a middle road, perhaps putting rather more emphasis on personal skills and development than team skills and development, though reasonably high on both; more concerned with experiental activity than taught concepts, with 'here and now' than the 'there and then'.

3.6 ERGOM programmes have been widely used in industry over the past few years, but can only be used under the control of a recognised ERGOM trainer.

For further descriptions see:

1. Cox, C.J. ERGOM - an International Training and Research Project. Group Relations Training Association Bulletin, Vol.1, No.4, 1973.

2. Cox, C.J. An ERGOM Workshop - What is it? Industrial Training International. September 1974.

For further information contact the UK representative of ERGOM, C.J. Cox, Department of Management Sciences, UMIST.

4. Management Style and Questionnaire Approach

There are a number of training systems which attempt to categorise those undergoing training by some type of management style. We will consider briefly three of these:

4.1 Blake's Managerial Grid

The purpose of this training system is self-confessedly to improve organisational effectiveness in terms of general economic productivity and profitability. An assumption is that people trained in this system will at the end be more effective managers.

Blake suggest that managers can be characterised by their location on his two dimensional grid, one axis of which is labelled 'concern for production' and the other 'concern for people'. Each axis has a scale of nine points and creates a possible 81 points at which a manager's performance might be plotted. For practical purposes Blake uses five points to illustrate the five principal management styles:

1.1 Low on both axes. Impoverished Management. The bare minimum done to achieve essential tasks. Little concern with people leads to general apathy and indolence.

1.9 Low on concern for production, high on concern for people. Country Club Management. High personal satisfaction among employees but low work levels. Plenty of bonhomie and good fellowship, but little concern for getting the task done.

9.1 High on concern for production, low on concern for people. Task Management. People are regarded impersonally as tools of production and production efficiency is the main concern.

5.5 Adequate concern for people and production. A satisfactory but hardly dynamic concern for getting the task done is matched by keeping morale at a level which, if not high, at least is good enough not to interfere with production.

9.9 High on both factors, production is achieved by integration of task and human requirements into a unified system based on good relationships of trust, respect and commitment to the organisation.

The purpose of the training is to reveal to trainees where they lie on the matrix and then get them to shift to position of 9.9 which is defined as the most desirable. In the Management Grid seminar, which normally lasts a week, members tackle a series of exercises, experiencing conditions of conflict, stress, competition, failure and fatigue, and their performances both as a group and individuals, are scored. Individuals' performance are discussed by the group and each trainee learns how others see his style. This generally means that, whereas as many as 80 per cent initially assess themselves as 9.9 managers during the seminar, all but about a quarter reassess themselves as lying elsewhere on the grid.

While MG Training undoubtedly gives individuals a much sharper perception and awareness of their own behaviour and its impact on others, the concern is really with gross managerial style rather than specific inter-personal skills. This system seems to an extent to confuse how one behaves in a specific situation with other people, and the general style one tries to exercise.

4.2 Friedlander's Orgalis System

This training mechanism is typical of a number which are based on questionnaires which form the basis of subsequent discussion and possible changes in attitude or style. Friedlander believes that we can classify managers by their life style. This he defines as the individual's pattern of needs, values and perspectives, and he places managers into one of three life styles:

Formalistic
Sociocentric
Personalistic

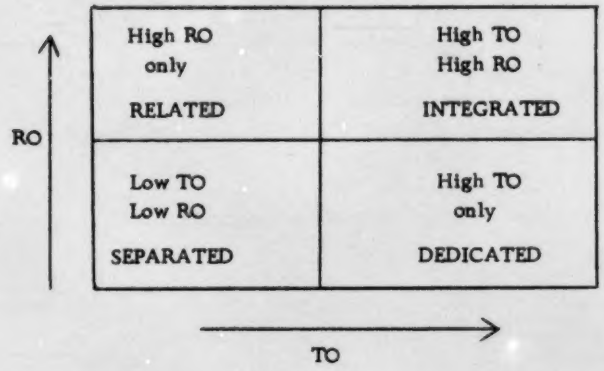
The meaning given to these three categories is defined by the alternative choice offered in the questionnaire. For example, to the question - 'What do you believe is the best incentive?' the Formalistic response is 'Money, status, prestige and advancement'; the Sociocentric response is - 'Approval from the group'; and the Personalistic is - 'Freedom, self-control, self-direction'. Very simply, Formalistic people have a concern with rules, structures, order and routine; Sociocentric people have a concern with relationships with other people and groups; and Personalistic people have a concern with their own individual needs of growth and self-actualisation.

In these three categories, trainees are scored on the basis of their responses to questions on their values system and attitudes to life, and on their behaviour to work situations. The Friedlander system is used in different ways by different trainers. It provides a basis on which to develop various kinds of group or individual analysis and can often be a lead-off into T-Group type of sensitivity training. It can equally, however, be used to move into more specific skills training in, for example, counselling and interviewing techniques, or in task team effectiveness.

4.3 Reddin's 3D System

Reddin is concerned with managerial effectiveness and particularly in organisational development, and has developed a training programme mostly concerned with increasing the effectiveness of managerial style.

The theoretical basis of his system, rather like Blake's, is based on a division into Task Orientation and Relationships Orientation and he divides his basic management styles as follows:



TO (Task Orientation) he describes as the extent to which a manager directs his own and his subordinates efforts: characterised by initiating, organising and directing.

RO (Relationship Orientation) he describes as the extent to which a manager has personal job relationships: characterised by listening, trusting and encouraging.

Each of the four management styles is seen as having a positive and negative side, dependent upon whether such a style is efficient in the circumstances. So Reddin is really describing 8 management styles, as follows:

Basic Management Style	Inefficient Style	Efficient Style
Integrated	Compromiser	Executive
Separated	Deserter	Bureaucrat
Dedicated	Autocrat	Benevolent Autocrat
Related	Missionary	Developer

Increasing Efficiency

Reddin uses various indicators to describe these styles of which we give, as an example in summary form, those for the Deserter and Bureaucrat.

Deserter Indicators	Bureaucrat Indicators
Works to rule - minimum output - gives up.	Follows orders, rules, procedures.
Avoids involvement, responsibility, commitment.	Reliable. Dependable.
Gives few useful opinions or suggestions.	Maintains system as going concern.
Uncreative. Narrow-minded.	Watches details. Efficient.
Hinders others. Makes things difficult.	Rational. Logical. Self-controlled.
Resists change. Uncommunicative.	Fair. Just, Equitable.

These are, of course, the positive and negative styles of the basic style of the Separated Manager.

By the use of a questionnaire test, known as the Management Style Diagnostic Test, a score can be obtained for each individual on each of the eight possible styles. This gives a style profile, generally presented as a bar chart and should show an individual's dominant style, supporting styles and those which are completely rejected. Aggregations of individuals profiles will give a profile for the organisation which should show something of its philosophy of management.

All this information is used in a programme of team development which aims to increase the flexibility of the organisation to respond to new situations by unfreezing the behaviour of individuals and giving them greater perception of their own modes and styles of operation.

****

Further Reading

1. Blake R.R. and Mouton J.S. The Managerial Grid. Gulf. 1964.

2. Reddin W.J. Managerial Effectiveness. McGraw-Hill. 1970.

3. Friedlander F. "The relationship of task and human conditions to effective organisational structure." In Bass B, Cooper R and Hass J. Managing for Accomplishment. D.C. Heath (Lexington). 1970.

Further explanation of Blake's Managerial Grid as it was applied in training schemes at ICI can be found in:

4. Berger M.L. and P.J. Group Training Techniques. Gower Press. 1972. Chapter 3.

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PART TWO

5. Sensitivity Training

5.1 Sensitivity Training is a method of developing interpersonal skills using various techniques within a context of group experience.

The basic characteristic of such training is its experiential nature. By 'experiential' we mean that learning comes from what is actually being experienced by the individual in his/her relationship with other people in the group. The goals of learning are located within the individual. Sensitivity Training is not concerned with acquisition of skills and knowledge that lie outside the individual. Its goals are concerned with such areas as:

Developing new insights about oneself as a person;

Analysing one's behaviour and its effects on others;

Understanding better the character of the relationships established with others;

Understanding better one's impact on groups and organisations.

So experiential learning requires a central process dealing with the on-going interaction between that individual and the group.

5.2 There are common characteristics in all groups involving themselves in sensitivity training.

5.2.1 A concern with the Here-and-Now

Most learning stems directly from what is occurring at the time or from what has occurred during the history of the group. The most useful data to help a person learn about self and others is that which is immediately and publicly available. Little or no attention is paid to what individuals did before they came into the group. This could mean, for example, that the group does not find out what people's surnames or occupations are.

5.2.2 Feelings as appropriate and valuable material for analysis

In most everyday situations, we do not allow ourselves to acknowledge publicly or deal openly with our feelings, whether of warmth or of hostility. We believe that our feelings are not appropriate to reveal in most situations in which we find ourselves. But constantly devaluing or bottling up our feelings atrophies some essential part of our humanity. Groups create a situation where feelings can legitimately be revealed as material for exploration and analysis.

5.2.3 Self-disclosure

In order to increase self-awareness, the individual needs to disclose his feelings and thoughts about himself to others. Jourard described it thus, "no man can come to know himself except as an outcome of disclosing himself to another person". Clearly it is necessary that the group develops a climate of trust, in which self-disclosure and its associated vulnerability is supported rather than exploited by others.

5.2.4 The importance of feedback

This gives the individual the opportunity to find out how his behaviour is seen by others so that he may change it if he wishes. Feedback seems most effective if:

It is given very soon after the relevant behaviour;

It describes specific behaviour rather than general reactions to the whole of the person;

It reveals emotional reactions to another's behaviour without making moral or ethical judgements;

It comes from more than one person.

5.2.5 A climate encouraging an individual to make his own choice about change

In group learning, each person undertakes the tasks which seem best to him, and establishes his own criteria for success or failure. No one else can set tasks for him or lay down changes to be achieved. Much group training takes place in laboratories. The word is used to emphasise the fact that members are encouraged to experiment beyond their usual pattern of inter-acting with individuals or groups, and to learn from such experimentation of behaviour.

6. Group Training

6.1 Group training is of various types, using a range of techniques. Not everyone uses the terms consistently or discretely, but we can distinguish the two major types of groups:

Encounter Groups

T-Groups (Training Groups)

Within each there are variants, and some of the techniques are common to both. Very often it is no more than a difference in emphasis.

7. Encounter Groups

7.1 The primary purpose of an Encounter Group is that of the personal growth of the individuals who meet to form it. In the words of William Schutz:

> "An Encounter Group has no pre-set agenda. Instead, it uses the feelings and interactions of group members as the focus of attention. The process of achieving personal growth begins with the exploration of feelings within the group, and proceeds to wherever the group members take it. A strong effort is made to create an atmosphere of openness and honesty in communicating with each other. Ordinarily a strong feeling of group solidarity develops, and group members are able to use each other very profitably."

7.2 Encounter group is a generic term, and there are many different variants. Those influenced by Schutz, for example, are likely to follow him in seeing the core of interaction behaviour lying in the individual's efforts to deal with three existential problems. These are:

7.2.1 Inclusion - feelings of belonging or being separate, of the need to be with people or to be alone;

7.2.2 Control - feelings of influencing what is happening without invading other people's rights over their lives;

7.2.3 Affection - feelings of emotional inter-dependence with other people without dependency or counter-reaction.

In Schutz's groups it is these three areas that are highlighted, but other groups such as those influenced by Carl Rogers have their own particular style. Generally, the effect is similar, even if conceptual schemes are different.

7.3 There are some common features to Encounter Groups which tend to distinguish them from T-Groups, though some do merge the two.

7.3.1 Firstly, the trainer organises or allows to happen, a whole variety of activities other than sitting and talking. These are frequently in the form of physical relating exercises. Some examples are given at the conclusion of this section.

7.3.2 Secondly, the trainer involves herself very fully in the group activity, often acting for long spells as a member rather than a trainer.

7.3.3 Thirdly, there is an attempt to put the members in touch with their bodies. The assumption is that most people have disassociated their feelings, thoughts, behavioural interactions with other people, from their own bodily feelings and reactions. So members are encouraged to examine how their bodies feel when they experience anger, rejection, loneliness, excitement.

7.3.4 Fourthly, members are encouraged (though not compelled) to express the way they feel about others in physical as well as verbal terms. Thus feelings of warmth lead to hugging, of competitiveness to wrestling, of rejection to pushing away.

7.3.5 Finally, Encounter Groups are very flexible and therefore borrow any particular technique that happens to seem useful. There is a considerable use of fantasy, of body work and massage, and of Gestalt techniques.

There is a comment on these methods at the end of the section.

8. T-Groups

8.1 The T-Group was first developed at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relationships in the late 1940s by Wilfred Bion. It was an attempt to find a technique of developing leadership and organisation skills for those in employment. It was particularly intended for those working in industrial and commercial firms but was also appropriate to such bodies as Churches, Colleges and Hospitals.

The T-Group, as developed by the Tavistock Institute, was concerned with increasing the understanding of the behaviour of small groups. Although this necessarily includes attention to increased self-awareness and awareness of others, the emphasis or focus of concern is on the group as a whole: on the dynamics of group roles, on group norms, on communication distortion, and on the effects of authority on various behaviour patterns.

A T-Group is not on-going. It meets for a stated number of sessions and then closes. Typically, this is for a week, but a long weekend or even a series of weekly sessions are common enough. A dozen or so people sit around with no agenda other than of exploring what happens between them during that time. There is a trainer, but she takes little overt part, and gives no obvious direction. Her purpose is to facilitate or comment on the processes taking place without obtruding or getting in the way. To an outsider she would appear to do very little except sit and watch. The members do nothing much except talk or keep quiet. Although much non-verbal communication takes place, members do not normally move around or relate physically.

8.2 Over the past few years, a variant of the Tavistock Group has developed from Massachussetts Institute of Technology. The National Training Laboratory (NTL) method places much more emphasis on personal growth, and the individual within the group, rather less on group processes. Trainers become more heavily involved, and do not sit back as observer/consultants in an Olympian detachment from the group.

8.3 The NTL type of group now finds more favour in this country than the Tavistock Group. The major umbrella organisation concerned with group training of all types, the Group Relations Training Association (GRTA), tends to prefer the NTL model. However, it is only a difference of style and emphasis, and many trainers work at different times with both styles of group.

9. Group Processes

9.1 Both T-Groups and Encounter Groups are sufficiently similar to consider together from this point on. Various writers have developed frameworks to describe what habitually occurs in the history of a group. The one we examine here is that of Bennis and Shepard.

9.2 They see two major obstacles inhibiting the growth of the group. The first concerns authority or influence in the group. Since trainers, against expectations, refuse to lead the group, who will? The second concerns the degree of closeness or warmth members wish to experience, the freedom they want in the group to share and deal with effective feelings. So for Bennis and Shepard, questions of power and intimacy are at the root of social relations within the group.

9.3 They see people operating as dependent, counter-dependent or independent - though most individuals have all these characteristics to an extent. Dependents are defined as people who prefer clear tasks, pre-set rules and an acknowledged leader. Counter-dependents dislike rules, distrust authority leaders and prefer free-wheeling situations. Independents tends not to find power a big issue in their lives. They deal calmly with leadership issues when they become important, feeling neither dependent on, nor aggressive towards rules and authority figures.

9.4 They also see people operating as over-personals, counter-personals and personals. Over-personals are defined as those who want to become as intimate and loving as possible; counter-personals as those who resist or even flee from sharing their feelings with others; and personals as those who can handle matters of intimacy and warmth without too much conflict and with a degree of calmness and rationality.

9.5 In the life of a group, typically power issues dominate its first phase. Within this there are normally three sub-phases. The first is characterised by dependence. Members are looking for the leader, for the rules, for a structure, and there is some disorientation at the failure of this to become apparent at once. In the second sub-phase there tends to be a battle between dependents, who start to organise a set or rules and authority roles, and counter-dependents, who reject this. There is a tendency to break into sub-groups, and the issue of leadership becomes critical. Often the trainer or a surrogate is heavily attacked. In the third sub-phase, ideally the conflict is resolved. Mostly through the work of independents, the group develops its own internal authority system, and is able to dispense with any dependency on the trainer. Occasionally she is even asked to leave.

9.6 In the second phase of the group's activity, questions of intimacy begin to dominate. At first the group is in a state of euphoria. It has been through a rough time and it has triumphed. Most people feel good with each other and happy in the group. Some want to stay in this phase because it is so comfortable, but the group eventually moves into issues about the accepted depth of inter-personal contact. Here, the battle wages between over-personals and counter-personals. Sub-groups again form and engage with each other, but the membership is different from the earlier phase. The final sub-phase occurs when the personals manage to reconcile the opposing attitudes and reach a consensual position. They are helped by the fact that the group becomes aware of the fact that it is reaching the end of its time. Various closure activities and behaviours become apparent. The very last session is generally very warm and good, with feelings freely expressed of experiences of intimacy and authenticity in relationships with others.

9.7 Of course, Bennis and Shepard recognise that the actual course of a group is pretty chaotic and does not follow exactly this ideal model. But underlying the confusion and ebbing and flowing, many trainers have found the two themes of power and intimacy developing more or less in the way described.

10. The Effects of Sensitivity Training

10.1 Adverse Effects

There is abroad a great deal of bizarre myth or fantasy as to what happens in T-Groups, Encounter Groups or similar kinds of Human Relations Laboratory Training. One writer described a T-Group as "a psychological nudist colony in which people are stripped bare to their attitudes", and there is a common belief that members are put under great pressure which results in dramatic cases of breakdown, and many others retire having suffered various kinds of psychological damage. In fact, the average group consists of pretty normal people doing normal things under the eye of a normal trainer.

It is, however, true that some cases of psychological damage have been recorded, and it is proper that this area has attracted much research. Although research into Laboratory Training is notoriously difficult to set up and interpret, there seems general agreement that psychological damage is a minimal risk, and that where it occurs the condition already existed ready to break out, and the group experience merely provided the arena in which it could do so.

10.2 Positive Effects

What is sensitivity training aiming to do? Dunnette and Campbell list the following. To:

10.2.1 Increase a person's insight and awareness about behaviour in social contexts, by learning how others perceive and interpret behaviour, as well as gaining knowledge of why and how a person behaves in different social situations;

10.2.2 Increase sensitivity to the behaviour of others, by becoming aware of the full range of verbal and non-verbal stimuli, as well as by developing the ability to infer correctly how others are feeling or reacting;

10.2.3 Increase awareness and understanding of processes that facilitate or inhibit the functioning of groups;

10.2.4 Sharpen diagnostic skills relevant in social and inter-personal contexts;

10.2.5 Augment behavioural skills so that an individual can intervene more successfully in social and inter-personal contexts;

10.2.6 Induce a pre-disposition to analyse inter-personal relations so as to achieve more productive and satisfying outcomes.

10.3 Before we look at the results of research on the effects of sensitivity training, it is worth making two points. Firstly, no-one has the same learning needs, and, whereas one member may learn a great deal because he needs to, another may learn much less because he has not that degree of need, but both learning experiences are equally valuable. Laboratory training is designed so that multifarious learning needs can be satisfied at various levels, and for the amount of learning to be under the control of the learner. Secondly, not everyone needs or wants to change, but most people need to test out certain critical questions about themselves. Having found some answers these may as likely confirm them in their current position as encourage them to change.

10.4 Accepting these two points, there are seven areas where research suggests laboratory training might have effect. The evidence is that:

10.4.1 Learning or change does occur in a significant number of people undergoing training, and it is of the kind intended;

10.4.2 T-Group and similar forms of training are very potent vehicles for learning, as compared with alternative forms of learning;

10.4.3 Listening skills improve substantially;

10.4.4 There is an increase in inter-personal perception, that is, the skill in seeing others as they are and/or perceive themselves to be;

10.4.5 Members change their perception of reality after training. In particular, they see work as more human and less impersonal: clear connections between satisfying inter-personal needs and work effectiveness: personal needs as a more significant part of work problems: less need to lay responsibility on others for work problems;

10.4.6 Members learn to perceive better the difference between their actual self and their ideal self. (This is how I am - this is how I would like to think I am);

10.4.7 Though on the basis of little research, the self-esteem and self acceptance of members increases. This is indeed a fundamental meta-goal of the advocates of T-Groups and Encounter Groups. Underlying the notion of any individual's inter-personal competence is that:

> He has confidence in self as well as regarding self highly:
>
> His experience of self is confirmed by others;
>
> He feels he is able to express his central needs as well as to utilise his central activities;
>
> He can, to a satisfactory degree, set his own goals and feel psychological success in attaining them.

These seven findings must be regarded as provisional. Probably 95 per cent of all laboratories or workshops go unstudied, and the research into the remaining 5 per cent is bedevilled with difficulties. Nevertheless, the findings do seem to match up with the commonsense or subjective views of trainers, and would be the expected outcomes, given the nature of the learning experience provided.

11. The Transfer of Learning

11.1 A commonly expressed concern about sensitivity training is that although it may have a profound and beneficial effect on the individual during training, he has great problems in readjusting to the 'real' world on his return and, indeed, may come back less able to work well in his organisation than before. Clearly, if this were a common result, employers would not invest on such a scale as they do in sending their employees on this kind of training. Nevertheless, the transfer of learning is a real problem, and undoubtedly individuals do have difficulties in returning to work with new insights, understandings about themselves and others, styles of relating that are more honest and open than before. In the words of one writer:

> "How can one transfer the climate of trust, of emotional support and acceptance for what one is from a T-Group into a wider organisation that more frequently than not shares different values, different norms, and expectations."

Sheldon Davis puts some of the common issues when he writes:

> "Say a man has a good experience. He comes back to the job full of new values - and sits down in the same crummy atmosphere he left a week before. He may be changed, but his environment isn't. How can he practise confrontation with a boss and secretary and colleagues who don't even know what it's all about? In a few weeks he's either completely dazed, or has reverted in self-defence to the old way."

11.2 Furthermore, it is possible that the way in which customary authority systems are deliberately destroyed in the T-Group may leave participants very uncertain how to react to, or exercise, authority when they return to their organisation.

11.3 Most of the experiences at a laboratory workshop are not, on the face of it, related to the situation back home. The relevance to work conditions of much of the material discussed in T-Groups is not obvious or direct.

11.4 A final difficulty is that there is not the continuous reinforcement that is necessary when individual learning is transferred into an organisational context. If substantial reinforcement is not provided, many individuals may feel frustrated at work, and relapse to relearning the habits and norms of the existing system.

11.5 To point up these difficulties is not, however, to deny the value of sensitivity training. There are costs and these can be minimised or increased according to the way the training and re-entry is handled. Problems are minimised when groups in training are complete groups taken from their place of work, and when the issues dealt with are related back to conditions in the home organisation.

12. Conclusion

12.1 Underlying most of the work done in sensitivity training are some value statements, and these should be stated as such rather than as self-evident truths.

The over-riding value statement is that we should attempt to develop a more humanistic approach to how people can relate at work and in other social settings. Such an approach is taken to include:

12.1.1 A belief in the value of expanding people's consciousness and self-awareness, in particular, so that they become aware of the choices that are available to them.

12.1.2 A belief that investigation and exploration of the human condition is legitimate and necessary and that the very process of enquiry is itself liberating.

12.1.3 A belief in the value of authenticity in inter-personal relationships, that is, the ability to express openly and fully what one is experiencing at the feeling and thinking levels, in such a way as to encourage the other to do likewise.

12.1.4 A belief in the value of co-operative concepts of authority relationships rather than of power or coercive concepts.

12.4 It is unlikely that people who do not accept these as important or even proper values will accept either the validity of sensitivity training. For those who do undertake such training, there is the hope that it will lead to more productive and creative ways of living and working together.

APPENDIX A

1. Encounter Group Exercises

Typical examples of Encounter Group exercises are the following:

> A participant voiced the feeling that the other members were mostly hostile or unfriendly towards him. He was, therefore, invited to place each member around the room at a distance away from him that reflected their various feelings towards him. Members then moved towards or away from him as they felt that his perception of their feelings to him were accurate.
>
> A participant felt that he had failed to break into the group and was an isolated outsider. The group formed a circle facing outwards with arms linked and he was encouraged to break through the cordon into the centre by any means he could devise.

These two exercises are helping a member work through his feelings, but there are others which are just encouraging members to encounter people at physical as well as the more common verbal levels. For example, members may start the session by kneeling on the floor with eyes shut, exploring the space around them. When people's hands make contact they explore each others' hands and try to tune into their feelings and express them during this encounter.

2. Gestalt Therapy

Gestalt Therapy was developed by Fritz Perls. It originated in the gestalt psychology of Kohler and Koffa, but has its own very idiosyncratic flavour. It stresses the wholeness of the individual, and tries to get the individual in touch with the primitive wisdom of the body. It sees most individuals as stuck in the existential problem of being in a situation which needs closure but which for some reason or other goes on and on. In therapy, much work is done in reintegrating the personality by working through dream and fantasies, and by trying to understand what messages the body is giving out by its posture and by its numerous autonomic and muscular-skeletal behaviours. Often the conflict which seems to be preventing closure of a problem is resolved by the individual holding dialogues with himself from the disparate parts of the body or psyche. For example, if someone constantly dreams of being threatened by a spider, he is invited to become the spider and to start a dialogue back to himself.

3. Body Work Techniques

Body Work techniques have been developed by Moshe Feldenkrais and by Ida Rolf. The aim of these is that by massage and manipulation, the body structures and particularly the muscles are freed from the rigidities and patterns of years of shaping and moulding. Chronically tense muscles, rounded shoulders, or curved spine generally denote years of misusing the body because of emotional traumas, and work on improving the function of the body is seen to help the removal of such traumas.

APPENDIX B

A note on Assertiveness Training

Workshops in Assertiveness Training (often abbreviated to AT) have become increasingly popular over the last two years, particularly in management training courses. This note is not intended to provide a full description or analysis of AT but aims to provide a very brief introduction to its main characteristics, and an indication of where you may find out more about it.

AT is a form of behaviour therapy. It aims to change the way people behave by putting them through a workshop where they practise new skills of behaviour and discard old ones. The main theme behind AT is that most of us have very inadequate skill in asserting ourselves when it is appropriate and legitimate that we do so. We either become too compliant and give in to other people's demands and pressures, even when we don't want to and when it is inconvenient for us, or we confront people aggressively in order to obtain what it is reasonable for us to have or refuse what it is perfectly proper for us to refuse. Either way, by compliance or aggression, we feel not OK, and the purpose of AT is to enable us to assert ourselves in such a way that our perfectly reasonable assertions leave us feeling OK about ourselves and the other person.

Many of us have been brought up to believe that it is a sign of good nature, selflessness and considerateness not to make a fuss, not to stand up for our rights, and not to refuse requests which with a bit of effort we can meet. Do we say Yes, when we really want to say No? If we do, then we make it more difficult to relate to and transact with other people. We deny our own rights, and we therefore also devalue the rights of all other people. We also store up inside us disguised forms of aggression and hostility because we are doing the things we legitimately do not want to do, and not doing the things we legitimately want to do. Alternatively we may store up inside us feelings of inadequacy, incompetence and failure. The kinds of statements we tend to make to ourselves are:

> If I assert myself people will get mad at me.
>
> If I assert myself, I will be made to feel bad or devastated.
>
> If I am open with others, I will hurt them.
>
> It is wrong to turn down legitimate requests from other people, however I feel.

Assertiveness Training teaches us to distinguish between assertive and aggressive behaviour. It defines those rights which everyone has simply because they are human beings, and which appropriately can be claimed in assertive behaviour. The necessary corollary is that we recognise the same rights which can properly be asserted by them in their relations with us.

These can be summarised under a Bill of Assertive Rights, which reads:

1. I have the right to be treated with respect.
2. I have the right to express my own feelings and opinions.
3. I have the right to be listened to and taken seriously.
4. I have the right to set my own priorities.

5. I have the right to say no without feeling guilty.

6. I have the right to ask for what I want.

7. I have the right to receive what I order and pay for.

8. I have the right to ask for information from professionals (Doctors etc.) in so far as it relates to me.

9. I have the right to change my mind.

10. I have the right to make mistakes

..... and so does everyone else.

The best way to understand AT is to go on a workshop. A good introduction is provided in the following film. If you can tolerate the very brash presentation, it gives an excellent and quick coverage of the main techniques.

'When I say No I feel Guilty',, produced by Training Films International.

Distributed by Training Films Limited, St. Mary Street, Whitchurch, Shropshire.

An introduction to AT is provided in the following book

Fensternheim H. and Baer J. Don't Say Yes When You Want to Say No Futura, 1976.

APPENDIX C

A Note on the MER System

Yet another set of initials is provided by the system of social skills training that has been developed by Helen Clinard in the USA and introduced to this country since 1977, mostly through BACIE. Known as MER, its full title is Managing Effective Relationships.

MER has a theoretical model which is explained to participants, and a programme of skills training which aims to improve communication skills in business and personal relationships. The theoretical model very briefly is as follows:

> All behaviours of another person that I perceive we can imagine as being observed through a lens with which I observe the world of behaviour outside myself. Each behaviour I see and relate to can be placed in an appropriate place in this lens. This is done by the following four steps:
>
> Step 1: I identify the specific and objective behaviour of another person with whom I relate. I record it without interpreting it or generalising it.
>
> Step 2: I then observe my emotional response to it. It can be either positive, neutral or negative. Neutral reactions are causing me no concern, and positive ones are pleasurable, so my concern is with my negative reactions.
>
> Step 3: I look at the behaviours causing a negative reaction in me, and subdivide them into:
>
> 1) those behaviours that cause me a problem
> 2) those behaviours that seem to cause him a problem
> 3) those that cause us both a problem.
>
> It is crucial at this stage that I get the ownership of the problem right. It is not necessarily the person who is causing the problem who owns it. Ownership is with the person who is bothered by it and wants a change, not necessarily with the person who needs a change.
>
> Step 4: I look at the behaviours that cause me a problem and divide them into those which trouble me because of their tangible effect on me (for example prevent me getting on with my job) and those which trouble me because they go against the values I hold (for example, the way people dress).

We thus can place all behaviours we observe into one of six categories.

1. Behaviours I appreciate.
2. Behaviours that cause me no problem.
3. Behaviours that indicate the other person is bothered.
4. Behaviours that indicate we have a mutual problem or conflict of needs.
5. Behaviours that cause me a tangible problem.
6. Behaviours I dislike for reasons other than their tangible effect.

On the MER model each of these is placed in a diagram of the lens through which we make our observation.

The training programme involves the development of appropriate skills for each of the categories of observed behaviour. In the case of behaviours I appreciate I learn to respond with more skilful stroking by giving appreciation messages. The skill here is in avoiding general and vague messages in favour of messages which state what specific situation or behaviour has pleased me, what tangible effect it has had on me, and the way I now feel. In the case of behaviours which show the other person as troubled, the skills I learn are those of counselling (as outlined in Paper 7 of this book). Behaviours I see as causing us both problems need application of mutual problem solving techniques.

In the case of problems that trouble me, it is critical that skills are used which define the situation. Otherwise the negative feelings I have will damage working and social relationships. Among the techniques open to me, which are taught in the training programme, are changing my own situation so that I cease to feel troubled, changing the environment (for example the work scheduling routines) so that the problem ceases to exist, or trying to influence the other person so that he changes his behaviour. The most difficult skill of positive confrontation involves me owning the problem as mine (it is I who am worried), and stating in specific, objective and non critical terms the effect it is having on me, and my feelings about that effect. It aims to reduce defensiveness or resentment to the minimum. Another set of skills and techniques are taught for dealing with any problems that arise from value conflicts. These include self change or self development.

MER is still a relatively new training system, though it has been used by managers, supervisers, operatives and clerical staff in the UK.

Details of the MER courses run by BACIE can be obtained by writing to that organisation at 16 Park Crescent, London WC 1.

A brief account of the system can be found in the following article

Clinard, Helen. Managing Effective Relationships. BACIE Journal. March 1978.

Further Reading

On T-Groups and Laboratory Training in general, a very good introduction with full references is:

1. Blumberg, A. and Golembiewski, R. Learning and Change in Groups. Penguin Modern Psychology, 1976.

On Encounter Groups, books by two of the major figures are:

2. Schutz, W.C. Joy. Penguin, 1973.

3. Schutz, W.C. Elements of Encounter. Bantam, 1975.

4. Rogers, C. Encounter Groups. Penguin, 1973.

Gestalt Therapy is best approached through:

5. Perls, F. et al. Gestalt Therapy. Penguin, 1973.

Of Perls' own idiosyncratic books, the most useful is probably:

6. Perls, F. Gestalt Therapy Verbatim. Bantam, 1972.

His autobiography, however, has its own fascination:

7. Perls, F. In and Out of the Garbage Pail. Bantam, 1972.

Other References in the Text

8. Bennis, W.G. and Shepard, H.A. A Theory of Group Development. Human Relations, Vol.9, 1956.

9. Dunnette, M.D. and Campbell, J.P. Laboratory Education: Impact on People and Organisations. Industrial Relations, Vol.8, 1968.

The major organisation concerned with sensitivity training of various types is:

The Group Relations Training Association.

The present Honorary Secretary is:

Richard Boot, 3 St. Hilda's Road, Barnes, London, S.W.13.

I've Read the Papers - What Next?

If you have read through the papers to this point, we hope that you have learnt something more about interpersonal skills and their application to your work in the college.

However, there is a limit, and a very severe one, to the amount one can improve interpersonal skill performance by reading papers or books. Useful though it is to become familiar with some of the concepts and theories in this area of study, and interesting though it is to read about the application of techniques, it does not necessarily help very much in developing management skill in relating to other people. This can only be done by guided or evaluated practices in work and simulated situations. This is not easy to set up. A certain amount can be done by the individual setting time apart consciously to evaluate his performance over a series of interactions. It is most useful in those circumstances if the individual can write down his evaluation. The problem with this is that our own individual perceptions are very selective, and however hard we try to avoid it we are also defensive about our own position in an interaction, so we may well have a partial or inaccurate view of our performance. Nevertheless constant and honest self-appraisal of one's performance is the necessary first step.

A second step is to use another person to help in the appraisal. It means finding someone whom one trusts and respects and who has some of the skills of listening and counselling described in Paper 7. A particularly useful way of doing this is to find someone equally interested in evaluating his performance so that the two people can work together both at the skill of counselling and that of evaluating and improving performance in the job. There is a technique known as co-counselling which has been developed by Brian Southgate in courses at the Polytechnics of North London.

A third step is to form a group of people in the college who are interested to improve their skills. Such a group can use books or collections of papers such as this, as a way into the subject, and then discuss, evaluate the experiences of members in their work and if they wish set up practice simulations, role-playing exercises or other practical activities. Every college is able to find a person skilled in this kind of training activity who could advise and help, either on their own staff or in nearby institutions. Finally, as a fourth step, one can go on an outside course of training in some aspects of interpersonal skills. There are many weekend or one week workshops or courses run round the country and some which are run as evening sessions throughout a term or year.

We make two warnings about such workshops. Firstly it is essential to find out that the objectives or aims of the course are understood by you and are ones that you want for yourself. There are a multitude of different kinds of courses, and their objectives vary very widely, from learning how to work in committee more effectively to experimenting with moving into taboo areas of personal behaviour. We cannot over-emphasise the importance of anyone contemplating a course finding out what the course is about. Many courses cannot describe very easily the techniques used to reach the objectives, but they should be able to state clearly what it is all aimed at.

Secondly it is important to find out if the people claiming expertise and experience in running a course or workshop actually have this. There are unfortunately many short courses run by people unqualified or inexperienced in that area, and it does not follow that because it is a course run by or in a college, the staff involved are necessarily competent to run it. So some hard questioning is in order, and would not be resented by anyone who actually was experienced and qualified. No general rules can be given as to what constitutes reasonable experience or ability.

It has to be left up to the commonsense of the enquirer. However, anyone who is conducting Transactional Analysis courses should be a member of the Institute of Transactional Analysis and the ITA is anxious that people should write to the secretary to check out whether such a person is qualified to do what he claims. Similarly anyone organising and acting as leader to a T-group would probably be trained either through the Group Relations Training Association or the Tavistock Institute. If in doubt, it is probably most useful of all if a prospective member can talk to people who have been members on previous courses.

However one can safely assume professional competence in courses on interpersonal skills organised by or formally approved by:

The Group Relations Training Association
The Institute of Transactional Analysis
BACIE
ERGOM
The Tavistock or Grubb Institutes

There are many colleges which are running very successful courses and it would be invidious to single out any name other than that already mentioned in the text: i.e.

The Applied Behavioural Science Division at the Polytechnic of North London

The Further Education Staff College has run interpersonal skills workshops for FE staff at between one to two year intervals and of course invites fully skilled and qualified people from outside to help run the workshops.

LIST OF FURTHER READING

The Basic Skills of Social Interaction

Argyle, M. — The Psychology of Inter-Personal Behaviour
Penguin 1967.

Argyle, M. — Social Interaction
Tavistock 1969.

Group Interaction Analysis

Bales, R.F. — Interaction Process Analysis
Addison-Wesley 1950.

Bion, W.R. — Experiences in Groups
Tavistock 1961.

Dyer, A.A. and Giles, W.J. — Improving Skills in Working with People: Interaction Analysis.
Information Paper 7. Training Services Agency. HMSO 1974.

Klein, J. — Working with Groups
Hutchinson 1963.

Rackham, N. et al. — Developing Interactive Skills
Wellens 1971.

Team Building

Berger, M.L. and P.J. (eds.) — Group Training Techniques
Gower Press 1972.

Likert, R. — New Patterns of Management
McGraw-Hill 1961.

Likert, R. and Likert, J.G. — New Ways of Managing Conflict
McGraw-Hill 1976.

McGregor, D. — The Human Side of Enterprise
McGraw-Hill 1960.

Transactional Analysis

Bennett, D. — TA and the Manager
Amacon 1976.

Berne, E. — Games People Play
Penguin 1968.

Berne, E. — What Do You Say After You Say Hello
Corgi 1975.

Berne, E.	Beyond Games and Scripts Grove 1976.
Birnbaum, J.	How to Stop Hating and Start Loving Pan 1977.
Harris, T.	I'm OK - You're OK Pan
James, M. and Jongeward, D.	Born to Win Addison-Wesley 1971.
James, M. and Jongeward, D.	Winning with People Addison-Wesley 1973.
Jongeward, D. et al.	Everybody Wins Addison-Wesley 1976.
Jongeward, D. and Scott, D.	Women as Winners Addison-Wesley 1976.
Meininger, I.	Success Through Transactional Analysis Signet 1973.
Steiner, C.	Games Alcoholics Play Grove 1971.
Steiner, C. (ed)	Readings in Radical Psychology Grove 1975.
Tanner, I.J.	Loneliness: The Fear of Love Harper & Rowe 1973.
Wyckoff, H. (ed)	Love, Therapy and Politics Grove 1976.

Non-Verbal Communication

Argyle, M.	Bodily Communication Tavistock 1975.
Ekman, P. and Friesen, W.	Unmasking the Face Spectrum 1975.
Fast, J.	Body Language Pocket Books 1971.
Hinde, R. (ed)	Non-Verbal Communication Cambridge University Press 1972.
Morris, D.	Man-Watching Cape 1977.

The Counselling Interview

Burgoyne, J., Boydell, T. and Pedler, M. — Self Development
The Association of Teachers of Management, N.D.

Halmos, P. — The Faith of the Counsellors
Routledge and Kegan Paul 1965.

Rogers, C. — Client-Centred Therapy
Constable 1951.

Sperry, L. and Hess, L.R. — Contact Counselling
Addison-Wesley 1974.

Wilmot, W. — Dyadic Communication: A Transactional Perspective
Addison-Wesley 1975.

A Summary of Approaches to Interpersonal Skills Training

Part One

Berger, M.L. and P.J. — Group Training Techniques
Gower Press 1972.

Blake, R.R. et al — Breakthrough in Organisational Development
Harvard Business Review
No. 42 pp. 133-155, 1964.

Blake, R.R. et al — Coverdale Training for Development
Training Partnerships 1967.

Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. — The Managerial Grid
Gulf 1964.

Cox, C.J. — "ERGOM an International Training and Research Programme"
GRTA Bulletin, Vol.1 No.4, 1973.

Cox, C.J. — "An ERGOM Workshop: What Is It?"
Industrial Training International, September 1974.

Friedlander, F. — "The relationship of task and human conditions to effective organisational structure". In Bass, B., Cooper, R. and Hass, J. Managing for Accomplishment. D.C. Heath (Lexington) 1970.

Part Two

Blumberg, A. and Golembiewski, R.	Learning and Change in Groups Penguin 1976.
Perls, F. et al	Gestalt Therapy Penguin 1973.
Perls, F.	Gestalt Therapy Verbatim Bantam 1972.
Perls, F.	In and Out of the Garbage Pail Bantam 1972.
Rogers, C.	Encounter Groups Penguin 1973.
Schutz, W.C.	Elements of Encounter Bantam 1975.
Schutz, W.C.	Joy Penguin 1973.
Bennis, W.G. and Shepard, H.A.	A Theory of Group Development Human Relations, Vol.9, 1956.
Dunnette, M.D. and Campbell, J.P.	Laboratory Education: Impact on People and Organisations Industrial Relations, Vol.8, 1968.
Fensterheim, H. and Baer, J.	Don't Say Yes When You Want To Say No Futura 1976.
Clinard, Helen	Managing Effective Relationships BACIE Journal, March 1978.

AN ADDITIONAL LIST OF FURTHER READING

The following books may be added to the lists of further reading at the end of each paper.

Paper No.3.

An extremely useful book to read in connection with this paper is:

C. Margerison. *Managerial Problem Solving.* McGraw-Hill, 1974.
The first few chapters outline a system of categorising groups by function and relate appropriate styles of decision making to various types of groups. This concise book contains useful illustrative examples which exemplify the system that is presented.

I. Jarvis. *Victims of Groupthink.* Houghton Mifflin, 1973.
This is a fascinating book which concentrates on the way in which task groups delude themselves and come to disastrous conclusions. A film, distributed by International Training Films, is based on the book.

Paper No.5.

A major theoretical book on Transactional Analysis which brings together much of the advanced theory developed since the death of Eric Berne:

G. Barnes (Ed). *Transactional Analysis after Eric Berne.* Harper College Press. 1977.
Not a book to be tackled without practical experience in T.A. and a thorough knowledge of the introductory texts.

Paper No.6.

A. Scheflen. *Body Language and Social Order.* Prentice Hall, 1972.
A particularly interesting introduction to kinesics, well illustrated with photographs. It relates kinesics to various regulatory or control functions. The last two parts of the book are less concerned with body language then the general relationship of communication to institutional and political control, and the creation of deviancy.

Paper No.7.

D.W. Johnson. *Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualisation.* Prentice Hall, 1972.
This is a very valuable guide to counselling and interpersonal relationships, which deals with such topics as listening, responding, building up trust, self-disclosure, expression of feelings. Useful practical exercises are provided throughout the text.

Paper No.8.

J. Kovel. *A Complete Guide to Therapy.* Penguin 1976.
This is a stimulating and attractively written book which looks at most of the therapies being offered on the market today, including transactional analysis, encounter groups, T.groups, Gestalt therapy and more traditional psycho-analysis. A particularly valuable feature of the book is its attempt to relate therapies to social and political contexts.

Two useful introductory books on groups, relevant both to Paper 8 and Paper 2:

1. T. Douglas. *Groupwork Practice.* Tavistock, 1976.
   Some material on interaction analysis among other topics of group work. Probably more usefully read after the later volume.

2. T. Douglas. *Basic Groupwork.* Tavistock, 1978.
   A simple introduction to the nature of groups, probably not of great use to anyone who has some knowledge of groups or has read an introductory text.

COMPOSITE LIST OF ADDRESSES OF ORGANISATIONS

The Institute of Transactional Analysis
Alice Stevenson, Honorary Secretary,
Upper Green, Sandhurst, Kent.

The Group Relations Training Association
Guy Waveing, Honorary Secretary,
Gulf Oil, The Quadrangle, Imperial Square, Cheltenham

ERGOM,
c/o C.J. Cox, Department of Mangement Sciences
UMIST, Manchester.

The Tavistock Institute of Human Relations,
120 Belsize Lane, London NW3.

The Grubb Institute of Behavioural Studies,
1 Whitehall Place, London SW1

Coverdale Training,
57 Denison House, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1.

BACIE
16 Park Cresent, London W1.

Association for Humanistic Psychology,
62 Southwark Bridge Road, London SE1.

(This organisation is not mentioned in the text,
but is a useful source for information on courses)